

The Nation

VOL. XLI.—NO. 1048.

THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1885

PRICE 10 CENTS.

Schools.

Alphabetized, first, by States; second, by Towns.

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The Nation.

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Schools.

[Continued from first page.]

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JULY 30, 1885.

The Week.

THE death of General Grant has not come upon the people as a surprise or even as a grief. Public feeling has been harrowed many weary months by the tale of his sufferings, and new admiration has been stirred by the heroic patience with which he has borne the tortures of an incurable malady, and by the characteristic perseverance with which he has labored, during intervals of pain and weakness, upon his personal memoirs. The general sorrow has been deepened by the knowledge that physical torture was aggravated by mental torture, if indeed the one was not the exciting cause of the other. That the curtain should fall upon such a scene—that the picture of a great man's distress should be withdrawn from the common gaze and its place flooded with the light of his true glory, to be undimmed forevermore, is alike a mercy to him, to his family, and to his countrymen. All the tears that could fall for him have been shed. The hearts that have bled for him as the daily bulletins have come from his sick chamber will be comforted by the thought that he can suffer no more.

The last message which General Grant addressed to the people of the United States—for he obviously had the whole public in mind when he wrote the words which General Buckner very properly gave to the press—was an expression of his joy that he had witnessed since his sickness just what he had wished to see ever since the war—"harmony and good feeling between the sections." His death has emphasized what his sickness had illustrated. The reunion of the country is certainly complete when so representative a Southern newspaper as the *Mobile (Ala.) Register* uses such language as this:

"The South unites with the North in paying tribute to his memory. He saved the Union. For this triumph—and time has shown it to be a triumph for the South as well as the North—he is entitled to and will receive the grateful tribute of the millions who in the course of time will crowd this continent with a hundred imperial States, and spread to the world the blessings of republican freedom."

That Grant's fame has already become a national possession is shown in the no less striking remark of that other representative Southern newspaper, the *Montgomery (Ala.) Advertiser*: "Looking at the life and character of General Grant from the broadest national standpoint, it is true to say that no man since Washington has better illustrated the genius of American institutions or the temper of Americans as a people."

One of the oddest uses made of General Grant's death is perhaps the *Tribune's* proposition that the Republicans of New York "will honor his memory most truly by rededicating themselves to the unselfish service of the Republican party." It would hardly be possible to discover a more solemn admonition than General Grant's career in civil life, to be very careful how we "rededicate" ourselves to any party. There could be no better reminder that a party is

not a church or a religious organization of any kind charged with the custody of a body of truth. It is an instrument created every now and then by free peoples for meeting what seem to be the wants of the time, with appropriate legislation. It has no more claim than a horse and buggy on anybody's reverence for other things than its utility. "Dedicating" one's self to it, without regard to the quality of the men who manage it, or the uses to which it is put, is not rational. Parties being made up of frail and erring mortals like ourselves, dedication to them without regard to their utility is very dangerous, because we might find, and just now should find, that we were dedicating ourselves to Jim Blaine, and Steve Elkins, and Pow Clayton, and Jay Hubbell, and Bill Chandler, and Johnny O'Brien, and Jake Hess, and Barney Biglin—and Mr. George F. Hoar, whom we are loth to put in such company, but he insists upon it. In so far as General Grant's career furnishes people either young or old with a lesson in politics, it is a warning against blind devotion to party, against dedicating one's self to anything but the good of the country. The flaws in his political career, which every one is now lamenting, and the absence of which would have given him a place in the admiration as well as the esteem of the world such as no man since Washington has enjoyed, were due simply to the fact that the Republican party was so strong that it did not need to be good, and that so many people had dedicated themselves to it without regard to the kind of work it was doing.

Some of the more rational Republicans in Massachusetts tried to bring about the election of Mr. James Russell Lowell as Chairman of the forthcoming Republican Convention, as a sort of peace-offering to those who could not swallow James G. Blaine. But the State Committee soon disposed of the matter by giving the nomination to Mr. G. F. Hoar. The party everywhere exhibits all the usual signs of permanent exclusion from power in becoming more hide-bound and more stern about its "discipline," the weaker it becomes in numbers. Mr. Hoar will probably rant for an hour or so about the "principles of the Republican party," without ever mentioning what they are, and for another hour vituperate and misrepresent the President. There is in all the talk and action of these people a likeness to those of the Democrats between 1856 and 1860, which it would well repay some student of politics to reproduce. Their heads are so full of envy, hatred, and malice that they have no room for a single new idea or generous emotion. No; they could not elect Mr. Lowell. His mere appearance in the hall would make a great many of them uneasy in their seats, for did he not write, as the *Boston Advertiser* recalls:

"New occasions teach new duties: Time makes ancient good uncouth;
They must upward still, and onward, who would keep abreast of Truth;
Lo, before us gleam her camp-fires! we ourselves must Pilgrims be,
Launch our Mayflower, and steer boldly through the desperate winter sea,
Nor attempt the Future's portal with the Past's blood-rusted key."

Mahone has done his best to ease the strain for the bloody-shirt organs. Only a few weeks ago they were bitterly denouncing the action of the Democratic Legislature in North Carolina in voting money for the relief of disabled ex-Confederate soldiers as disloyal, repugnant to the spirit, if not to the letter, of the Fourteenth Amendment, and an insult to the blacks who were to be taxed for the benefit of men who fought to hold them in bondage. To maintain now, when the Republican party in Virginia has committed itself to similar action in case it carries the next Legislature, that this is a perfectly proper way of spending money raised from Union men as well as secessionists, blacks as well as whites, is a cruel necessity. But see how Mahone smooths the way for the organ-grinders, in explaining the plank in question:

"No, not pensions, but the means of frugal maintenance for such as sorely need care. This in the line of a high Christian duty, and in conformity with a civilization that cannot fail to command respect everywhere. To care for the dead and the suffering is the pious duty of organized society. The action in this case bears no other meaning."

And there actually are organs which condemned the Tweedledum of North Carolina Democrats as a "rebel yell," that applaud the Tweedledee of the Virginia Republicans as evidence of loyalty!

It is a remarkable fact that, despite all the talk from disappointed politicians about the disfavor with which Democrats regard Mr. Cleveland's course about the offices, we never get an expression of opinion from the people that is not hearty and outspoken in support of the President. We have called attention to some striking illustrations of this truth in Mississippi—especially the passage of a resolution warmly endorsing Mr. Cleveland's course by the Democratic Convention which met in the next county to the scene of the Copiah outrage and the Meade appointment incident. The same state of things evidently exists in Kentucky. Loud-mouthed politicians of the Blackburn school have been insisting that everybody in Kentucky was in favor of a "clean sweep," and that there was widespread indignation at the President's moderation. But although precedent requires no expression of opinion upon national topics in a gathering called to nominate local officers, we observe that the Democrats of Campbell County, one of the largest and most important in the State, adopted this resolution at their recent county convention:

"Resolved, That we heartily endorse the manly and independent course pursued by our President, Grover Cleveland, since his accession to office, and that we are willing to abide his time in effecting a thorough reformation of the Government in all its departments."

Fortunately Mr. Cleveland has always had so firm a conviction that the people would sustain him that such expressions are not necessary to confirm him in his policy, but they cannot fail to be as gratifying to the President as they are creditable to the party.

The National Executive Committee of Republicans and Independents have published in a neat pamphlet a report of their work in

the Presidential campaign of 1884. It is an interesting and valuable document, giving as it does a concise history of the rise and work of the Mugwumps in that memorable struggle. Exact statements are given of the receipts and expenditures, every dollar being accounted for. We should very much like to see an authentic statement on this model compelled by law from the Campaign Committee of every party at the close of a Presidential struggle. The mystery of "soap" would then be solved, and, what is of more importance, its worst uses in campaigns would be abolished forever. At the end of their report the Independent Committee show, in a carefully prepared table, that in every State in which Independent campaigns were conducted, Blaine's percentage of the total vote was less than Garfield's. In Massachusetts the loss was more than 10 per cent.; in Rhode Island, Iowa, and Wisconsin it was 4 per cent.; in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut it was 2 per cent.; in Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana it was between 1 and 2 per cent.

The Independent Committee of Indiana have been doing good work by calling the President's attention to the fantastic tricks of Mr. Aquilla Jones, the nominee of Vice-President Hendricks in the Indianapolis Post-office. The result is that a commission has been sent out to examine Jones's performances, and we think the chances are that Jones will have to go. We are assured that after this Mr. Hendricks will declare "war" on the Administration, which will rage during the remaining three years of President Cleveland's term, but is not expected to produce any marked effect on business or seriously affect the credit of the Government.

Some of Jones's performances are really grotesque, particularly when one reflects that he is supposed by some people to be upholding a system to which the bulk of the people of the United States are tenderly attached. He found the Indianapolis Post-office in a state of high efficiency. He at once removed the Assistant Postmaster and Cashier, and put in his place as Assistant Postmaster an old fellow named Dodd, sixty years of age, who had failed in the cement business and then canvassed for a newspaper, but was active in "politics." His means of support previous to his appointment were not visible, and have not been ascertainable. Jones then made the cashiership a separate office, and whom do you think he put in this? Why, his own beloved son Ben. He also removed the stamp clerk in favor of a minister who can get no congregation, the "Rev." Oliver H. Abbott. He also removed the head of the Registry Department and gave it to a young fellow of twenty-two, a clerk in a drug store, known as Bill Morgan. And who is Bill? Why, the nephew of Mrs. Vice-President Hendricks. He turned out the Chief of the Repair Department and put in his place an inspector of pork in a local pork house, named Sheppard. He turned out the engineer, the elevator boy, and the janitor. Who, do you think, was the new janitor? Why, Fred Jones, another son of Aquilla. He found four women in office, as repairers of jute sacks. He could not even pass these by. One was a widow of forty-five,

with two daughters to support; another was a soldier's widow, with a decrepit mother to support; another was a widow with a niece to support. The fourth was also a widow, a niece of the late General Burnside, and had a mother and sister to support. They all did their work well, but this was of no consequence to Jones. He wanted their places for three male henchmen of his own. Moreover, he openly expresses his contempt for the Civil-Service Act and the rules made under it, and openly assures applicants that he will not appoint any Republican, no matter how well he passes the examination.

This is the system as administered by Jones—a system for making the public service a refuge for loafers, paupers, tramps, and dead-beats and poor relations—for which, we are assured by some, the Democratic party proposes to fight its own President. It wants to relieve Jones of the support of his sons Ben and Fred, and relieve Vice-President Hendricks of the trouble of supporting Bill Morgan, his wife's nephew, the drug clerk. A nice issue this will be for a great party. Jones says if the election was not intended to enable him to do what he is doing, he does not know what it meant. Well, he will, we trust, find out before long. President Cleveland will remove the scales from his eyes and the props from under him, and down he will come, with Dodd, and the Rev. Abbott, and his sons Ben and Fred, and Bill Morgan, the Vice-Presidential nephew, all on top of him. The United States post-offices, he will then know, are not meant for such little companies as this to snooze and draw pay in.

The President has had an interview with a delegation of the Grand Army about giving offices to soldiers and sailors. He informed it that they have now a preference over other candidates shown by the examinations to be equally well qualified, and would continue to have it, but that places in the public service must be reserved for persons competent to fill them. This is, we believe, all that really honorable, intelligent, and patriotic soldiers ask for. Nothing is more unsoldierly than the doctrine that the best man ought *not* to win, or that, as a reward for having been a good soldier, a man ought to be allowed to become a bad letter carrier, or bad weigher or clerk. Having fought well in war entitles a man to reward, but not to every kind of reward. The notion that an old soldier ought to get a place in the public service whether he is fitted to fill it or not, is a relic of the old spoils rule which made it the duty of appointing officers to find good places for the men. The rule now is, however, to find good men for the places, and men who have seen service in the field ought to be the first to rejoice over it. The Grand Army is making similar attempts to get the civil-service rules let down in this State, but we trust they will not succeed. It must not be forgotten, in considering the applications of this organization on this subject, that the total number of veterans in New York is estimated at 300,000, including 100,000 in this city and Brooklyn, and that only 33,000 of them are to be found in the Grand Army of the Republic in the whole State, and only 9,000 in

this city and Brooklyn. It is therefore in no proper sense representative of the men who served in the war by land or sea, or authorized to speak for them on any subject, and least of all on office-seeking.

Looking about for some vital principle and live Republican issue, we can perceive only one at the present time. This is the doctrine that John Roach's failure was caused by the Democrats and the free-traders. The *Tribune* has proclaimed it repeatedly, and with the zeal of one who has been long in want of an issue. The Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* has seized it in its usual headlong way, charging the Democratic party with the crime of "closing, by their unjust assaults, the last great shipyard in the United States." It is probably a Republican principle that the Cramps, the Harlans & Hollingsworths, and the five other ship-building firms that have not failed, built all their ships at Mr. Roach's yard, and that with the closing of that establishment they are all out of employment. Mr. Matt Quay, too, being hard up for principles, has availed himself of the new find. At Beaver the other day, according to the Philadelphia *Times*, he declined to talk on any political question except the failure of Mr. Roach. Upon this issue he had very clear views. "Mr. Roach," he said, "is an active and liberal Republican, and is said to have raised \$100,000 for the Garfield campaign. It was well understood in political circles that if Garfield failed, he was to be made the first victim of the British policy of free ships and free trade; but Garfield won. Mr. Roach did likewise for Blaine. Blaine failed, and Roach's failure is the result of Blaine's failure." He added that what has happened now was threatened last fall by leading Democrats. The resolve was made a year ago that John Roach should bite the dust, but not, according to Mr. Quay, because he was a shipbuilder, not because he raised \$100,000 for the Garfield campaign, but because he is an Irishman. We have heard of the efforts to raise money for the Garfield campaign among the shipping interest, and also for the Blaine campaign, and that these efforts were not confined to American ship-owners, but extended to foreign companies as well; but we never heard that Mr. Roach's doom was sealed because he was born in Ireland. Indeed, we think that the fact of his being of Irish birth was not generally known until after the failure, when it became apparent that the Blaine Irish contingent would be likely to claim a share in his martyrdom if proper stress were laid upon the fact.

Secretary Whitney's letter to one of John Roach's assignees puts the whole controversy between Mr. Roach and the Navy Department upon a practical business basis. The Secretary's proposition is for a consultation between Mr. Roach's assignees and their counsel on the one hand and Mr. Whitney and the Attorney-General on the other, with a view to a settlement which shall be fair and just to both. There is no politics in the Secretary's statement that ordinary business methods should be followed at this consultation, "first, to become satisfied that the assignment was made in good faith, and then consider the best method, from a business standpoint, of bringing about a settle-

ment of current and incomplete contracts upon a fair and just basis for both parties." This will give Mr. Roach an admirable opportunity to show the precise cause of his failure. If the course pursued by Mr. Whitney was the cause, he can make it so plain that everybody can see it, and can thus justify the assertions of his champions that he is the victim of political persecution. What the public desires in the matter is the truth, and as Mr. Whitney has requested Mr. Roach to tell it, we trust that he will hasten to avail himself of the privilege.

It is evident from the Secretary's letter that he is not able to see at present how his course could have caused the failure. He shows from the records of the Department that, instead of being illiberal with Mr. Roach, the Government has been, through the kindness of the late Secretary, Mr. Chandler, very generous. The contract with Mr. Roach provided that 10 per cent. should be retained from his bills as they became due and held as security for the completion of the work. Up to the present time these reservations would have amounted to \$210,710, had they been made in accordance with the contract; but with the exception of \$26,670 they have all been paid over to Mr. Roach. He has received therefore \$184,000 more than was due him, and cannot complain of harsh treatment upon that score. There was certainly no "politics" in Secretary Whitney's refusal to pay over to him the remaining \$26,270, but only the most ordinary business principles.

The *Tribune* desires to have proper credit given to itself for certain statements imputing the causes of Mr. Roach's failure to the action of the Government—which statements, copying from the *Tribune*, we ascribed to Mr. Weed, the assignee of the failed firm. We perceive, upon a second examination, that the quotation marks appertaining to the interview with Mr. Weed ceased just where those unjustifiable statements began. We therefore award to the *Tribune* the discredit which it claims, and exonerate Mr. Weed to the same extent.

One way in which the Government has been swindled in the Indian business is clearly shown by the enrolment of the Cheyennes and Arapahoes at Fort Reno, in the Indian Territory, which was concluded on Wednesday week. No count had been made before since 1874, when the Cheyennes numbered 3,905 and the Arapahoes 2,366, and rations have been issued ever since upon that basis, although it now appears that there are but 3,169 Cheyennes, and 1,300 Arapahoes—only 4,469 in all, or little more than two-thirds of the 6,271 on the old rolls. The amount out of which the Treasury has been defrauded for years, by the refusal to take a new census, is placed as high as \$92,000. The agent has resigned, and a "clean sweep" of all parties to the fraud is expected. A thorough overhauling of the agency system will doubtless show that this is not the only place where such swindles have been perpetrated. Mr. Dyer doubtless feels bitterly that "the Confederacy is again in the saddle," and that there is no protection of colored voters in the old slave States.

It seems that the advocates of a system of universal pensions to Union soldiers are not disheartened by the rebuff which the Grand Army of the Republic administered at the national encampment in Portland, Me., last month. They have already resumed their campaign, and declare that they will keep on until they succeed. A Boston post is the headquarters of the movement, and the project is advocated with all the usual appliances of demagogism. In the first place, the number of men who would receive the proposed \$8 a month is absurdly underestimated. It is even claimed that there are now only about 600,000 survivors of the Union army in all, although as a matter of fact there are almost a quarter of a million already upon the pension roll, and there is every reason to believe that the number not on the roll reaches nearly or quite a million. In the second place, the expenditure is advocated upon the ground that it would help business. As a champion of the scheme puts it: "If the bill should go through this winter, that would mean an expenditure of \$57,600,000 a year. That signifies \$14,400,000 put into circulation in the quick channels of trade every quarter. Every veteran all over the land will have his \$24 to spend once in three months and he will spend it—not hoard it. The butcher and the baker and the farmer and the shoemaker will get this \$57,000,000. It will not be hoarded. The effect will be a financial irrigation of the land. When the business men come to see this they will be on our side." This is the familiar old argument that the short road to national wealth is by voting everybody something out of the national Treasury, which, of course, if carried to its logical conclusion, would demand an appropriation not only for old soldiers but for citizens of every class. We have too much respect for the men who fought to save the Union to believe that they either want to become mendicants, or can be bamboozled by such balderdash.

Some of the New England papers are having an interesting discussion as to the future of agriculture in that part of the country. The number of farms was reported by the census of 1880 as 207,232, against 180,649 in 1870, but it seems to be doubtful whether the salable value of the farming land is as great now as it was fifteen years ago. A Rhode Island paper says that in that State farm lands, as a whole, would not sell for as much as they were worth forty years ago; but, on the other hand, the farming is higher, the cattle are better, the farm-houses are better kept up, and the social life is broader, the improvement having been especially marked within the last twenty years. This is probably true of other parts of New England, but there are also regions, especially among the hill towns, which have undoubtedly retrograded during the last generation. The future of the hill towns in those States is a serious problem, which is brought home to any traveller who observes the too manifest signs of their present decay. The *Providence Journal* takes a hopeful view of the situation. It regards the present as a transition period, in which the manufacturing and commercial interests are robbing the farms of their best blood, but it predicts

that the deserters will return gradually to the rural districts with both money and a higher ideal of life.

The published programme of the settlement of the great West Shore and New York Central dispute will be received with satisfaction by most of the parties immediately concerned, that is, by the stock and bondholders and creditors of the two corporations. If there is a dissatisfied minority in the West Shore interest, it is not in a position to make much trouble, since the opposition, if any, must be prepared to bid in the property at a foreclosure sale, pay off three or four millions of receiver's certificates, and put up more money to carry on the war, foregoing in the meantime any return on their capital. Of course no considerable number of bondholders will elect to pursue this course when the alternative presented is an immediate return of something over 4 per cent. interest on the present market value of their bonds, abundantly secured. The stockholders of the North River Construction Company are equally unprepared to continue the fight, since they are also loaded down with debts and in the hands of a receiver. Anybody who can pay their debts, or buy up the claims against them, can bring them in, *volentes volentes*. Of course the New York Central's plan of settlement would not have been published until it was certain to be executed. Every door of escape has apparently been closed, every stumbling-block got out of the way. The New York Central Company take the West Shore property at a maximum rental of \$2,000,000 per year. As \$65,000,000 in cash has been spent upon the property, they get it at the rate of a little more than 3 per cent. per annum on the original cost.

The French have revived an old Revolutionary law which makes the State take charge of every seventh child of a family in necessitous circumstances, from the age of six. An attempt to establish scholarships in all the colleges for the benefit of this child, whether necessitous or not, was, however, voted down. The object of this legislation is to diminish the French reluctance to having children. It is in vain that statistics are laid before parents almost every week in every periodical in the country showing that the population of France is stationary or declining; that as a consequence thereof she is threatened with the permanent loss of her present place among the nations; that colonization is made impossible, and the country flooded with foreign immigrants. Nothing makes any impression on them. They evidently have children for their own comfort and not for the public good. The assumption on which the new law is based is that people will willingly incur the care and expense of bringing up six children in order at last to have another which they can impose on the State. But this is probably chimerical. Three is now the usual number of children which French parents are willing to have without a State bounty, and wise statesmanship seems to us to suggest offering the bounty for the fourth and not for the seventh. As a measure of protection—as it undoubtedly is—it seems very droll.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, July 22, to TUESDAY, July 28, 1885, inclusive.]
DOMESTIC.

GENERAL GRANT died at Mt. McGregor on Thursday morning at 8:08 o'clock. His end was peaceful and painless. Throughout Wednesday afternoon he failed rapidly, and his family were all with him expecting his death. After midnight the chill at his extremities rapidly increased, and local applications were made to restore warmth, but with little effect. Hypodermic injections of brandy were frequently given. The General lay upon a cot-bed in the parlor supported by two pillows and surrounded by his friends. At 3 o'clock Colonel Fred Grant asked: "Do you want anything, father?" and the General whispered huskily, "Water." This was his last articulate utterance, though he seemed to retain consciousness for some time afterward. Later in the morning hours some members of the family and his physicians left his room for a short time. A few minutes after 8 o'clock they were hastily summoned back to the chamber of death.

The news was immediately telegraphed throughout the land. Bells were tolled everywhere, mourning symbols were displayed along the streets, and flags in all cities were at half-mast. Everywhere expressions of sorrow were visible. Telegrams of sympathy from President Cleveland, Governor Hill, and many distinguished men poured in upon the bereaved family at Mt. McGregor. The President immediately issued a proclamation in which he said: "The destined end has come at last, and his spirit has returned to the Creator who sent it forth. The great heart of the nation that followed him, when living, with love and pride, bows now in sorrow above him dead, tenderly mindful of his virtues, his great patriotic services, and of the loss occasioned by his death." Governor Hill issued a similar proclamation.

In London the news created a profound impression. Mr. Gladstone and John Bright were both much affected. The former wrote the following message of sympathy: "Mr. Gladstone has heard with regret the sad news of General Grant's death. He ventures to assure the bereaved family of the sympathy he feels with them in their affliction at the loss of one who had rendered his country such signal services as a General and a statesman." Memorial services will be held in Westminster Abbey on August 4.

The London Times on Friday said: "With all his faults General Grant loomed larger in the people's eye than any of his rivals or contemporaries. If his nature was of metal of far more mixed alloy than that of the founder of the Republic, as even his warmest admirers must admit, it may be fairly pleaded that he was in this only the creature of his time. If his faults were those of his age and country, the military qualities on which the fortunes of his country at the critical moment depended were his own."

On Friday afternoon General Grant's family accepted the offer of the Mayor and Aldermen of New York city to afford a final resting-place for the dead General in Central Park. Before his death General Grant had indicated New York, Illinois, or West Point as places where he would like to be buried, his one condition being that provision was to be made that Mrs. Grant, at the last, should be buried by his side. This has been agreed to by the New York authorities. It has been arranged that the following shall be the programme of the obsequies: The body on Tuesday, August 4, will be taken to Albany, and will lie in state until noon the next day, when it will be taken to New York. From the time of arrival in New York on Wednesday afternoon until Saturday, August 8, the body will lie in state at the City Hall. The public services will take place on Saturday, at such time as the civic authorities may arrange, and the interment will then follow in Central Park.

Mayor Grace on Friday appointed a committee of prominent citizens of New York city to initiate a movement to provide for the erection of a national monument to the memory of the great soldier.

President Cleveland was on Saturday morning requested by the family to name the pallbearers to act at the closing ceremonies. He will attend to that matter. The funeral will be a military one, and General Hancock has been designated by the Secretary of War to superintend the pageant.

Col. Frederick Grant, Jesse Grant, and Gen. Horace Porter arrived in this city on Monday, and consulted with Mayor Grace and the Park Commissioners in regard to the final resting-place of General Grant. The result was that when Colonel Grant returned to Mt. McGregor on Tuesday morning he expressed the opinion to the family that the Riverside Park, in this city, was preferable to Central Park as a place for the General's tomb. Mrs. Grant then decided in accordance with that opinion. The decision was immediately telegraphed to Mayor Grace.

The burial place of General Grant will be near the site of the old St. Clare homestead, now known as the Claremont House. This building stands on a high plateau at the upper end of Riverside Park. The building was the homestead of the St. Clare family, and when the grounds about it were acquired by the city, the old building, which has stood for more than 120 years on the present site, was remodelled and transformed into a house for refreshments, under the control of the Park Department. From this point a fine view up the North River as far north as the Tappan Zee is afforded. Across the Manhattan Valley and the low lands bordering on the Harlem River, the visitor can see both shores of the Sound. It is probable that the name of Riverside Park will be changed to Grant Park.

Doctor Douglas has made public another of General Grant's notes, written on July 2, as an expression on the sectional question, and as testimony of his appreciation of the universal sympathy with him. In it he says: "I would say, therefore, to you and your colleagues to make me as comfortable as you can. If it is within God's providence that I should go now, I am ready to obey His call without a murmur. I should prefer going now to enduring my present suffering for a single day without hope of recovery. As I have stated, I am thankful for the providential extension of my time to enable me to continue my work. I am further thankful, and in a much greater degree thankful, because it has enabled me to see for myself the happy harmony which has so suddenly sprung up between those engaged but a few short years ago in deadly conflict. It has been an inestimable blessing to me to hear the kind expression toward me in person from all parts of our country, from people of all nationalities, of all religions, and of no religion; of Confederates and of national troops alike; of soldiers' organizations; of mechanical, scientific, religious, and other societies, embracing almost every citizen in the land. They have brought joy to my heart, if they have not effected a cure. So to you and your colleagues I acknowledge my indebtedness for having brought me through the valley of the shadow of death to enable me to witness these things."

The President and Cabinet have reached the conclusion that the leases of lands in the Indian Territory held by cattle-men are invalid, and it has been determined to have them set aside. A proclamation has been issued vacating them within forty days. They have also decided to turn over to the War Department the complete control of the Cheyenne and Arapahoe reservation in the Indian Territory. Capt. J. M. Lee, of the Ninth Infantry, has been appointed Indian Agent at the Cheyenne reservation.

There is a feeling of universal satisfaction among the Cheyenne Indians at the action of the President in appointing a new agent from the army to take charge of their affairs, and

his proclamation ordering the removal of the cattle-men has practically removed the discontent.

On Tuesday the President refused to extend the time for the removal of cattle from the Indian Territory ranches from 40 to 100 days.

President Cleveland has detailed Commissioner Thoman and Chief Examiner Lyman to visit Indianapolis, and investigate the charges against Postmaster Jones of violating the spirit and letter of the Civil Service Law in his administration of the office. This may involve an inquiry not only into his methods, but indirectly into the conduct of the Vice-President of the United States. Indiana politicians say that it is well understood that Postmaster Jones has acted after consultation with Mr. Hendricks, and that it has generally been understood in Indiana that Democrats, in any event, were to be appointed to all offices in the Indianapolis Post-office, and that Mr. Hendricks would welcome the dismissal of Jones if the dismissal should turn upon the civil-service-reform issue.

On the recommendation of Judge Chenoweth, First Auditor of the Treasury, Secretary Manning has suspended Professor Hilgard, Superintendent of the Coast and Geodetic Survey; C. O. Boutelle, Assistant Superintendent; Mr. Morgan, Disbursing Agent; Mr. Saegmuller, Chief Mechanician, and Mr. Zambrock, Electrotypist of that bureau, pending an investigation into certain irregularities said to exist in the accounts of that branch of the service.

The Secretary of the Navy has addressed a letter to Mr. John Roach's assignees, suggesting a meeting between them and the Attorney-General and himself. He calls attention to the fact that the Government only owes to Mr. Roach \$83,000, mostly in dispute, and adds: "As against this, four ships are in your hands, upon which over \$2,000,000 has been paid, which must be completed to be valuable, liable to greater deterioration by neglect than all the moneys unpaid and in dispute would repay. It is of the utmost consequence to the Government, as it is to yourselves, that a just settlement of past transactions should be had and a new departure made."

Rear-Admiral English, U. S. N., who has recently visited the Congo country, has reported to the Navy Department adversely to establishing a United States coaling depot in that region. Admiral English quotes from a letter from Tisdell, a United States commercial agent, in which he says: "The reputed wealth of the Congo Valley has been greatly exaggerated, and it will be an undesirable and unprofitable country for an American to make his home or to embark in any business enterprise. Between Vivi and Stanley Pool I saw on all sides misery, want, sickness, and death, particularly among the employees of the International Association." Commander Bridgman, after personal investigation, has made a similar report.

In Hartford, Conn., on Thursday, the telegraph contest was compromised. The Bankers' and Merchants' will surrender to the Western Union the use of four wires between Cleveland and Chicago, and the Western Union will give up six wires between the same points. The Western Union also abandons the wires west of Pittsburgh. The Bankers' and Merchants' gives to the Western Union the use of two additional wires between New York and Boston.

A commission has declared that John McCullough, the actor, is suffering from mental aberration, and has recommended that the Court appoint a committee to take charge of his estate.

Peter H. Watson died in this city on Thursday at the age of sixty-eight. He was born in Canada, but settled in Rockford, Ill., before attaining his majority. There he practised law. The first celebrated case that fell to his charge was that of Obed Hussey against C. H. McCormick for the infringement of the former's patent for the cutter of the reaping machine. He won the case and thereafter distinguished himself in similar cases. When Mr. Stanton

was made Secretary of War he invited Mr. Watson to take the place of Assistant Secretary, the duties of which office he discharged with zeal and fidelity. Upon the overthrow of the Fisk-Gould régime in the Erie Railway, Mr. Watson was elected President of that company, and set on foot the examinations which led to the restitution by Gould of \$9,000,000, or securities valued at that sum, to the company's treasury. Since his retirement from the Erie Mr. Watson has resided partly in Ashabula and partly in New York.

Mr. Martin Van Buren, son of Col. Abraham Van Buren, and a grandson of President Martin Van Buren, died on Tuesday in this city. He was a prominent society man.

Judge James Walker, of Bellefontaine, O., is dead at the age of sixty-two. He was one of the prominent Republican political leaders of that State, and was an untiring worker in the anti-slavery movement, and several times had to defend himself from personal attacks on account of his outspoken advocacy of human liberty.

The Rev. Oliver Stearns, D. D., a former dean of the Harvard Theological School, died recently in Cambridge, Mass., aged seventy-eight years. He was graduated from Harvard in 1826, and was Parkman Professor at the Harvard Divinity School. Later he was President of the Meadville (Pa.) Theological Seminary.

FOREIGN.

The Conservative Government was defeated in the House of Commons on Thursday evening by a vote of 180 to 130 on a clause of the Medical Relief Bill. The Parnellites opposed the Government. Sir Michael Hicks-Beach announced that the Government relinquished responsibility for the bill. Sir William Harcourt immediately accepted the responsibility on behalf of the Opposition. The discussion of the bill was then continued. The Cabinet on Friday decided not to interfere with the passage of the bill. The House of Lords on Friday evening passed the Land Purchase Bill and the Housing of the Working Classes Bill. The Medical Relief Bill and the Secretary for Scotland Bill passed their third readings in the House of Commons.

The Irish Land Purchase Bill will be dropped for the present session of Parliament, as there will be no time to discuss it before the prorogation. The Medical Relief Bill was read the first time in the House of Lords on Monday afternoon. The House of Lords in the evening, after an animated passage-at-arms between Earl Granville and the Earl of Milltown in regard to precedence in moving the second reading of the Medical Relief Bill, voted in favor of the Earl of Milltown. The Liberals were indignant, believing that the Lords intended to shelve the question. The bill, however, passed its second reading on Tuesday.

The marriage of Princess Beatrice, the youngest daughter of Queen Victoria, to Prince Henry of Battenberg, took place on Thursday at St. Mildred's Church, Whippingham, six miles from Osborne, Isle of Wight. The weather was lovely. At sunrise thousands of flags were run up on the Venetian masts that line the route to be taken by the marriage procession. The river and bay were full of yachts, brilliant with bunting, and presenting from the land an enchanting appearance. The bridal procession started from the palace at fifteen minutes after one. Loyal and enthusiastic cheering greeted the pageant as it emerged from the gates, and the demonstration was taken up and continued by the people along the whole route to the church. The ceremony was most impressive. The Archbishop of Canterbury, the Dean of Windsor, and other clergymen took part. Queen Victoria gave the bride away. The Queen's eldest daughter, Crown Princess of Germany, was not present, and it is said that the German Court disapproves of the match.

The Bank of Ireland on Tuesday refused to loan money to the Munster Bank to assist the latter in its present embarrassment. A panic

ensued in Cork and Dublin. It is not believed that the Munster Bank can be reorganized.

A dinner was given in London on Friday evening to Earl Spencer, late Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. Two hundred members of the House of Commons were present. The Marquis of Hartington presided. He proposed the health of Earl Spencer in a eulogistic speech. Earl Spencer said he had tried to do his duty to his sovereign and his country fearlessly in the sight of the world. He said that the Crimes Act was justified when passed by the presence in Ireland of 30,000 Fenians, who were aided by members of Parliament from England and Scotland and by funds from America in resisting the laws of the land.

Rumors have recently been put in circulation in Dublin that the Duke of Connaught has arranged to reside in Ireland in the near future. He will, it is said, live in Ireland in his private capacity, and in no way interfere with the official action of the Earl of Carnarvon, the Viceroy.

Sir Charles Gavan Duffy has written an open letter to the Earl of Carnarvon, the Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. The letter is one of congratulation to the Viceroy for his adoption of an admirable and upright policy toward the Queen's subjects in Ireland. Sir Charles submits to the Lord Lieutenant that if the Marquis of Salisbury's Cabinet undertake to restore Ireland's control of her own local interests and to accord her the same kind of independence as that enjoyed by the British colonies, not a single Irish member in the next Parliament will refuse to support the programme of his Government.

The British Government, distrusting the result of the proposals made to Rasalula for the relief of Kassala on the condition of a subsidy of £100,000 and a donation of arms, has reopened negotiations with Italy for an advance on Kassala early in the autumn. Italy has received the overture favorably, but has asked English coöperation in the expedition if undertaken.

It is asserted in London that the British Foreign Office has received incontestable proofs of El Mahdi's death. Osman Digna and his court have gone into mourning for him. Khalifa Abdoola has assumed the leadership of El Mahdi's forces.

The Lauderdale peerage case has been decided by the House of Lords in favor of Major Maitland. There were two claimants to the peerage—Major Maitland and Sir James Maitland. Major Maitland contended that he was the heir of the fourth son of the sixth Earl of Lauderdale, who married Mary McAdam in New York in 1772, two days before his death. Mary McAdam had borne three sons to this fourth son of the sixth Earl, and the petitioner held that this marriage legitimated the offspring. Sir James Maitland, a descendant of the fifth son of the sixth Earl of Lauderdale, contested the claim of Major Maitland. This is the case in which Senator Edmunds and Minister Phelps appeared as witnesses.

Sir Moses Montefiore, the well-known Hebrew philanthropist, who on October 24 last celebrated the 100th anniversary of his birthday, died at Ramsgate, England, at 4:30 o'clock on Tuesday afternoon. The Baronet's earlier years were passed in Italy. In 1812 he married a sister-in-law of Nathan Meyer Rothschild, the founder of the London branch of the great banking establishment. In 1827 he made his first trip to Palestine to make a personal investigation of the abject state of his brethren in that land. The Palestine Fund was established for their relief. He was appointed Sheriff of London and Middlesex in 1837, and during the same year was knighted by the Queen at Guildhall, and in 1846, as a recognition of his services in behalf of his race, both at home and abroad, he was created a baronet. His influence with the Pasha of Egypt and the Sultan of Turkey in 1840, after the massacre at Damascus; his untiring efforts with the Czar Nicholas in behalf of the Russian Jews in 1846; his

successful labors with Louis Philippe, King of France, in reference to the persecution of 1847; and his pleadings with the Spanish authorities in 1863, are all remembered with gratitude by the down-trodden of his race. His life-long dream was to see Palestine the seat of a Jewish empire and Jerusalem its capital.

Prof. John Veitch, the distinguished Scotch scholar and author, is dead, at the age of fifty-six. Among his published works are *Memoirs of Sir William Hamilton* and *Dugald Stewart*, *The History and Poetry of the Scottish Border*, and *Lucretius and the Atomic Theory*.

M. de Giers has repeated to the Marquis of Salisbury the proposal to refer the dispute touching the Zulfikar Pass to a joint commission. The negotiations with Russia are reported to be closing on an agreement that, until the Joint Boundary Commission reports, the part of Zulfikar Pass which Russia claims shall be neutral.

An article in the *Moscow Gazette* of Sunday, reported to have been inspired by the Czar, declares that Russia has reached the furthest limits to which she desires to go, and that the Government considers its ventures in Central Asia at an end. The Czar is anxious to secure a solid frontier within which progressive works of civilization may be carried on. Lord Salisbury has renewed the proposal that Russia should withdraw her troops from the advanced positions in the Zulfikar Pass in order to avoid a possible conflict with the Afghans. Russia will agree to the proposal on the condition that the Afghans be restrained from occupying the positions evacuated by the Russian troops.

The *St. Petersburg Gazette* said on Monday semi-officially that the Marquis of Salisbury on July 22 requested M. de Giers, the Russian Foreign Minister, to withdraw the claims of Russia to the disputed territory east of Zulfikar Pass, and that M. de Giers refused point-blank. London advices admit that little progress is making in the negotiations.

The debate on the Madagascar credit was resumed in the French Chamber of Deputies on Monday. M. de Freycinet said it was not a question of the conquest of Madagascar, because the season for military operations was now over. The adoption of the proposed credit would be a pledge of future legislative action, while its rejection would increase the arrogance of the Hovas. "Our immediate duty," declared the speaker, "is to protect the rights of our countrymen. The rights of France over Madagascar form a part of the national patrimony." If the Chamber voted the credit, that act would not prevent the Government from seeking an amicable settlement. The negotiations were still in progress, but the Hovas' offers had hitherto been inadequate, and they had used scornful and haughty language. It would be a saddening spectacle if France should pursue a hesitating policy. Continuing the debate on Tuesday, ex-Prime-Minister Ferry defended his colonial policy, amid a great uproar.

The Panama Canal directors have asked the French Government to sanction a new issue of 500,000,000 francs worth of bonds. Premier Brisson opposes the demand, on the ground that there is a deficit in the budget.

The *Herald's* Paris correspondent denies that the negotiations for an American commercial treaty with Spain have been abandoned. The adjournment of the Cortes was the signal for renewed activity in the negotiations.

Prince Hohenlohe, now German Ambassador to France, has been formally appointed Governor of Alsace-Lorraine.

At the funeral of the Socialist Hiller on Wednesday at Frankfurt-on-the-Main, inflammatory speeches were made denouncing God, the Kaiser, and the Government. The police forbade speeches, and the Socialists, refusing to obey, were attacked. About fifty were wounded in the affray. Order was quickly restored.

THE EBBING TIDE OF IMMIGRATION.

THE statement regarding immigration into the United States during the last fiscal year, just issued from the Bureau of Statistics, shows that the tide is ebbing more and more rapidly from the high-water mark of 1882. The arrivals at the ten principal customs districts (which receive more than 98 per cent. of the arrivals at all points), from July 1, 1884, to June 30, 1885, aggregate 387,821, which indicates a total of about 396,500 when the full returns are compiled. During the fiscal year of 1884 the total was 518,592, which fell nearly 85,000 short of the 603,322 recorded in 1883, and this in turn was more than 185,000 below the unprecedented figures for 1882, when no less than 788,992 immigrants arrived in the United States.

The history of immigration to this country is really the history of the country, since everybody is either an immigrant or the descendant of an immigrant, more or less remote. During the first century the movement was chiefly from England, but even then the English immigrants encountered the rivalry of adventurous bands from other countries, especially the Dutch on the Hudson and the Swedes on the Delaware. Almost from the first, Germany has been the most liberal contributor, of all the Continental nations. Pennsylvania was the most attractive colony to the Germans, and they flocked to it in such numbers that in 1729 an English official sounded a note of alarm in his prediction that "the crowds of Germans will soon found a German State," while in 1755 another, after referring to the arrival of more than 5,000 during the previous year, wrote: "I do not see why they will not soon be in a condition to make our laws for us and determine our language." It did not go quite so far as this, but German actually became the official language in a number of counties, and a long line of German names in the list of Governors of the State shows the influence which this element has always wielded.

The Revolution virtually put an embargo upon immigration for seven years, and the European wars which immediately followed, and continued almost without interruption until 1815, checked for a whole generation the movement across the Atlantic. Scattered notices from shipping lists furnish the only basis for judgment as to the number arriving previous to 1820, and investigators differ considerably in their estimates. As shrewd a guess as any seems to be that of 250,000 immigrants from 1775 to 1820, which was made by Dr. Loring, of the United States Statistical Bureau, some years ago. From 1820 to 1856 the record gave the whole number of aliens arriving, instead of those coming to settle, but for a long while after the change of system was made the two columns very nearly agreed, so that comparisons can be fairly made for the past sixty-five years. Beginning with 8,385 in 1820 and hovering about those figures for half-a-dozen years, the total grew rapidly from 10,837 in 1826 to 79,340 in 1837. The financial crisis of the latter year was reflected in the sharp fall to 38,914 in 1838, but the loss was more than recovered by 1840, and no serious break occurred in the rapid rise for the next fifteen years. A series of bad crops and poli-

tical troubles in Europe gave a strong impetus to the movement early in the fifties, which culminated in a total of 427,833 for 1854. The next year the aggregate fell off more than one-half, to 200,877, and it had hardly begun to recover before the crisis of 1857 sent it down still lower, to 118,616 in 1859, while the outbreak of the war reduced it yet further, not quite 90,000 arriving in either 1861 or 1862. As confidence in the preservation of the Union was restored, immigration revived, and after the restoration of peace it increased rapidly to the then unprecedented total of 459,803 in the fiscal year 1873 (July 1, 1872, to June 30, 1873). The crisis of 1873 arrested the movement, and it again dwindled, year by year, until 1878, when it reached only 138,469. Another corner was turned in 1879, when the total was 177,826, and then it proceeded by leaps and bounds—457,257 in 1880, 669,431 in 1881, and 788,992 in 1882—by far the largest total on record.

For a long while Ireland sent us more people than came from any other European country, and often more than all the rest put together, especially in the period following the great potato famine, 221,213 Irish immigrants being reported in 1851 out of 379,466 in all. But of late years the Irish contingent has fallen off very rapidly, both relatively and actually, only 51,567 of last year's total, or less than one-seventh, coming from that country. Germany has taken Ireland's old place, sending us 123,293 people last year, or nearly a third of the whole number, and in the aggregate Germany has contributed to the United States since 1820, 4,022,947, as against 3,485,820 from Ireland. England stands third, with 1,287,571, and Sweden and Norway, counted together, fourth, with 696,358. Italy's contingent, long unimportant, began to grow rapidly a few years ago, and reached 32,159 in 1882, but has fallen again to 13,587 for the past year.

The most remarkable fact shown by an inspection of the records is that the immigration during the past five years—2,968,159—exceeds the total for the whole decade from 1870 to 1880, viz., 2,812,191, which was the largest for any decade in our history. This has an important bearing upon any estimate of the country's present population. Between 1870 and 1880 the number of inhabitants increased 30 per cent., from 38,558,371 to 50,155,783. An increase during the five years since 1880 at the rate of 30 per cent. in ten years would make the present population 57,679,150; but as the immigration of a whole decade has been compressed into these five years, the gain must obviously have been more rapid than 3 per cent. a year. The great excess of growth from this outside source would apparently justify an estimate of 59,000,000 at the present time, and the next Fourth of July orator may safely boast about a nation with 60,000,000 of people.

THE TORIES AND THE IRISH.

THE Salisbury Government has sustained a severe defeat on an amendment to the Medical Relief Bill, which provides that a man shall not be disqualified for voting by reason of his having during the previous year accepted gratuitous medical treatment from a public dispensary. To this bill the Tories were a few months ago violently opposed, as an admission

of paupers to the franchise, but since they got into power they have accepted and taken charge of it without winking. What is the precise nature of the amendment on which they have sustained their defeat, the cable does not inform us. But this is a matter of small consequence. The important feature in the incident is, that the Parnellites voted against the Ministry, who were actually worsted by a majority of fifty in a tolerably full House. The immediate result of this was that they dropped the bill on the spot, leaving the Opposition, led by Sir William Harcourt, to take charge of it. It would appear from this that there is about as much foundation for the stories of a permanent alliance between the Tories and the Parnellites as there used to be for stories of permanent alliance between the Liberals and the Parnellites. Whenever, during the late contest between Parnell and the Liberals, any concession was made on either side, such as the liberation of Parnell from prison, it was always stoutly affirmed by the Conservatives that a secret agreement, such as "the treaty of Kilmainham," had been reached between Gladstone and Parnell, by which the Liberal Cabinet was to have the support of the Irish vote in the House of Commons.

Not one of these stories ever proved true. There is nothing to show that Parnell ever promised anything to the Liberals beyond certain action in a particular case. He has undoubtedly agreed more than once to support, or not to oppose, a particular bill or vote, in consideration of some concession made to him on the other side; but there has not been in his policy in the House of Commons the slightest trace of a settled alliance between the Irish and either of the parties. This, too, has really been the secret of Parnell's strength and success. All Irish parties in the House which have preceded his were Irish only occasionally, and Liberals as a rule, and the leaders were in the habit of disappearing every now and then into the ranks of the Government office-holders. Parnell was the first to change all that. He initiated the plan of forming an Irish party which should never be anything else than Irish, and which should on all occasions, and not on some only, deal with the business of the House from the Irish point of view, and vote on every question solely with reference to the effect it would be likely to have on Irish business. It is the extraordinary and unprecedented tenacity with which he has adhered to this policy that has given him the remarkable hold he now has on the Irish people, and has made him successful finally in grasping the balance of power in the House of Commons. He was evidently wiser than nearly all his critics, in believing that, if he held on firmly, so far from uniting the two English parties against him, he would finally make them competitors for his support, and would hold whichever was in power, to a certain extent, at his mercy. Each in turn now compliments and tries to placate him, and every time he concedes something it is reported that he has at last signed a treaty. But there is no reason to believe that he is any less independent than ever, or that either Liberals or Conservatives have anything to expect from him of which the world does not know.

What Mr. John Morley, one of the ablest

writers and shrewdest observers on the Liberal side, says on this subject in the last number of *Macmillan's Magazine*, is well worth quoting:

"A second point that cannot escape attention in the crisis, is the peremptory dissipation of favorite illusions as to the Irish vote 'not counting.' The notion that the two English parties should establish an agreement that, if either of them should chance to be beaten by a majority due to Irish auxiliaries, the victors should act as if they had lost the division, has been cherished by some who are not exactly simpletons in politics. We now see what such a notion is worth. It has proved to be worth just as much as might have been expected by any onlooker who knows the excitement of the players, the fierceness of the game, and the irresistible glitter of the prizes. When it suits their own purpose, the two English parties will unite to baffle or to crush the Irish, but neither of them will ever scruple to use the Irish in order to baffle or to crush their own rivals. This fancy must be banished to the same limbo as the similar dream that Ireland could be disfranchised and reduced to the rank of a crown colony. Three years ago, when Ireland was violently disturbed, and the Irish members were extremely troublesome, this fine project of governing Ireland like India was a favorite consolation, even to some Liberals who might have been expected to know better. The absurdity of the design, and the shallowness of those who were captivated by it, were swiftly exposed. A few months after they had been consoling themselves with the idea of taking away the franchise from Ireland, they all voted for a measure which extended the franchise to several hundreds of thousands of the inhabitants of Ireland who had not possessed it before, and who are not at all likely to employ their new power in the direction of crown colonies or martial law or any of the other random panaceas of thoughtless and incontinent politicians. As for the new Government, sharp critics—and some of the sharpest are to be found on their own benches—do not shrink from declaring that they come into power as Mr. Parnell's lieutenants. His vote has installed them, it can displace them; it has its price, and the price will be paid. In the whole transaction, the Irish not only count—they almost count for everything."

GENERAL GRANT.

THE career of Ulysses S. Grant has been in every way so closely identified with the history of the country for nearly five-and-twenty years that no citizen of the United States, no intelligent citizen of the civilized world, will hear of his death with indifference. His great military services are so universally appreciated by his countrymen that he has become, by a natural and beautiful operation of popular faith, the very embodiment of the idea of successful assertion of the national unity against disunion. The popular instinct is right in assuming that great achievements imply great character. The popular faith which sprang from Grant's first great success at Fort Donelson became stronger from day to day, until the confidence of a whole nation in the national existence centred in and hung upon the unflinching faith, the unbending will, and the undiminished courage of one quiet man "fighting it out" on the line of the Potomac and the James not only through the summer of 1864, but the autumn and the following winter too. As President of the United States he disappointed and grieved a large part of the best element of his fellow-citizens; but the memory of the war-time was so strong and deep that they were ready with excuses for his political mistakes and condonation for his political faults. To them he remained the General, and their sincere and even tender respect made them seek to ignore everything which displeased them, and to prove, by a spontaneous and disinterested impulse of generous gratitude, how far from true it is that republics are ungrateful.

The best tribute we can pay his memory is to be as sincere and direct in trying to estimate him as he was in his effort to bring our great struggle to a successful end. The wish to understand him, to know his strength and his weakness, the inward springs of his successes and his failures, will far outlast our time. It will be an historical problem which will be studied in generations to come. He already belongs to history.

His early youth was spent in the severe discipline of comparative poverty in a new country.

When he was appointed a cadet at the Military Academy, the law required no preparation beyond what the education of the common school of the country district would give, and it is probable that he had no more. He was not specially gifted as a student. It was the physical rather than the intellectual life of the army which attracted him. In physical accomplishments, especially in horsemanship, he soon became noted. In his studies he never reached the medium line of his class. Quiet, resolute, undemonstrative, shy, singularly lacking in ordinary conversational power, he yet had strong common sense and practical judgment, and toward his intimates was kind and considerate.

His early army life, though including honorable service in the Mexican war, was not satisfactory to him, and it was at one time widely believed that he had ruined his career by fixed habits of intemperance. He resigned from the army under this cloud, to go through several years of depression, of want, of disappointment, and of neglect. His ventures in private business did not prosper; he had little talent that way. Among his old army acquaintances, and particularly in the staff corps, the impression was prevalent that his life was hopelessly wrecked. The events of the earlier part of his new military career can only be understood by frankly facing this fact. The distrust of him which was manifested in powerful quarters was traceable directly to this. He had to reconquer confidence, a much sorer task than to win it for the first time. The influence of that period of suffering went even further. It probably exaggerated, in his judgment, the disadvantages of poverty and the value of wealth, and increased a natural paternal shrinking from the thought that his family should ever be in danger of repeating his experiences.

At forty years of age, the outbreak of the civil war so plainly opened anew to him the gates of hope that we cannot doubt his whole nature was roused to a new assertion of itself, and his invincible will was set on regaining at least what he had lost. His patriotic zeal was a thing as he held in common with Logan, with McClelland, with Oglesby, with Palmer, and his other early comrades from Illinois; his terrible resolution, his calm judgment in peril, his strong grasp of great forces were all his own. The unhappy retrospect made the determination to date a new career from that time far more than ordinary resolves even of resolute men. It was for life or death. Nor was the self-discipline he aimed at gained at a bound. As to his habits, it was a gradual conquest, which perhaps showed more plainly the quality of his nerve than any other fact in his history. A defeat was only a signal for a more stubborn effort.

Appointed Colonel of an Illinois regiment, he proved useful to Governor Yates in the organization of the contingent from that State, and was appointed a Brigadier-General of volunteers before he had seen any active field service. He then reported to Fremont, and was assigned to a brigade with headquarters at Cairo. He was not averse, in later life, to telling, with dashes of real humor, his experience in trying to break through the barrier of the wonderful and polyglot staff about the St. Louis headquarters, and of his failure to secure a personal interview with the Commandant of the Department. But he showed even then the faculty of taking his rebuffs with patience, and continuing to do with steady energy the work that was at hand. The affair at Belmont showed him equal to a "stand-up" fight, and capable of withdrawing a command from a dangerous position with credit.

With the assignment of Halleck and Buell to the two principal departments of the West, the systematic prosecution of the war there may be said to have begun. For the first time the forces were somewhat commensurate to the work, and Sherman's estimates, which had seemed so absurd to Cameron, were found by Stanton not to be unreasonable. Halleck saw that the Tennessee River was the line by which to break the Confederate centre, and was glad to make use of Grant's eagerness to make an expedition against Forts Henry and Donelson, and thus to take the initiative in the campaign from Buell, who was methodically perfecting his arrangements for an advance. The audacity of the movement suited Grant's

qualities as a soldier, and was itself in no small measure the cause of its success. Fort Henry's capture was, as to the fighting, a naval engagement; but the surrender of Donelson remains a striking proof of the moral effect of a daring initiative. Grant's confidence seemed to the Confederate generals to indicate an army at his back double what it really was, and they took him at his word when his demand for "unconditional surrender" implied an overwhelming force to execute his threat. This really important victory came at a time (February, 1862) when the fame it gave was multiplied in public estimation by the universal impatience at the delay in opening the campaign on the Potomac, and Grant reaped the full benefit of it in glory and in promotion.

He was immediately made to feel, however, that his military superiors were predisposed to unfriendly views of his conduct. Halleck based severe reflections on his conduct after the battle upon some irregularities, which were reported, among the troops at Donelson, and upon what seem to have been accidental interruptions of mail and telegraphic communications between them. With a want of frankness, Halleck represented complaints as originating at Washington which were merely the echo of his own despatches sent to McClelland. Grant interpreted these things as evidence that in old army circles the past was to be inexorably remembered against him; and when he was ordered to turn over the command of his active column to General C. F. Smith and remain himself at Fort Henry, he felt driven to ask to be relieved from service in Halleck's department. But this victory had given him a popular strength which enabled such friends at Washington as Elihu Washburne to counteract these hostilities, and Halleck felt obliged to be contented with Grant's very brief explanations and to restore him to command. The battle of Shiloh followed quickly (April 8, 7, 1862), and the result tended to intensify the debate whether military good conduct or the blind favors of fortune were to be thanked for his success. That the two-days' battle had ended in a national victory no one denied, but there was a loud outcry that Grant's own army had been routed when Buell's arrival on the field turned disaster into victory. Halleck himself took the field, and, by announcing Grant as second in command without immediate control of troops, practically retired him.

Grant never forgave this, and would again have insisted upon being relieved of service in that department if Sherman, with warm friendliness, had not urged patience and the awaiting of the varying chances of the campaign. It was, no doubt, true that Grant had been over-confident before the battle of Shiloh, and had believed that the enemy, who had just made the retreat from central Kentucky to Corinth in Mississippi, would not dare take the offensive against the victorious divisions he had brought from Donelson. His troops did not encamp upon a continuous or intrenched line, but were echeloned in separate camps by divisions. The enemy's advance was covered by the forest, and Grant was practically without cavalry to give him information. When, then, his divisions were attacked, though each was able to form in front of its own camp, each in turn was outflanked and driven back before the necessary manoeuvres could be made to bring them into united action. Such was the situation when Grant reached the field, and it was with great difficulty that the successful advance of the Confederates was checked after a most bitter fight, which had lasted the whole day. That Grant himself was undismayed was shown by his making immediate dispositions to resume the offensive when Buell's troops arrived, and by his delivering the return blow early the next day with resistless effect.

His patient endurance of his half disgrace brought its reward. Halleck would seem to have gained confidence in him and to have had his prejudices removed; for when he became General-in-Chief he gave Grant most earnest support in the Vicksburg campaign, and served loyally under him when the latter became Lieutenant-General. The campaign of Vicksburg at first seemed fated to keep open the question of Grant's capacity, though there was now no question of his fighting qualities. His abandonment of the inland

route for that of the Mississippi River cannot be defended on military principles; and intrigues connected with the assignment of McClelland to an independent command had probably more to do with it than any distinctly military reasons. But when he finally broke loose from the trammels in which he had placed himself, and, crossing the Mississippi again at Bruinsburg, divided and beat in detail the enemy's forces, then, turning upon Pemberton, drove him into Vicksburg, and invested him there, resuming his own communications in doing so, the most sceptical were forced to admit his possession of military talents of the highest order. Pemberton's surrender on the 4th of July, 1863, came with the victory at Gettysburg to give assurance that a permanent turn in the tide of war had been reached.

Grant's fame was now secure and his military preëminence was scarcely disputable; but when in November of that year he redeemed the disaster of Chickamauga by the dramatic victory of Mission Ridge, his promotion to the Lieutenant-Generalship may be said to have been made by acclamation. If the hard hammering of the Virginia campaign which followed had little of the brilliancy of his former exploits, it perhaps consolidated all the more his reputation for tenacity, and for power to infuse his own unconquerable determination into a great army. If we shuddered at the fearful cost of life at which that campaign was carried on, the steadily defensive policy of an army which had made the dashing campaigns Lee had before that time conducted, was sufficient proof of the conviction he felt of Grant's ability to deliver a fatal thrust if the guard should for a moment be lowered. The surrender at Appomattox was made more imposing by the unaffected modesty of the victor, and the nation's gratitude was intensified by the perfect subordination to the civil authorities of his country, which removed every fear that the war had raised up any soldiers too proud or too powerful to be peaceful citizens.

His personal bearing had been in thorough keeping with the modesty of his public utterances. He was never violent or abusive. He was scrupulously courteous to the humblest, and never allowed arrogance or profanity about him. To his faithful subordinates he showed himself a faithful friend, and never grudged to these the opportunity to reap their full share of glory. To those whom he suspected of covert enmity or intrigue he was implacable, though undemonstrative, and to all such he effectually barred the way to important commands. In both likes and dislikes he was sometimes wrong, but the virtue of close sticking to his friends was so popular a one that the abuses of it were easily forgiven. No man of the century had a juster claim to be called happy, few had so just a claim to be called great when the civil war closed.

When he was elected President he had evidently formed the purpose to conduct his Administration with independence, confining the executive departments to the proper discharge of their public business, and resisting the temptation to use the appointing power to increase the Presidential influence over Congress. His first choice of Cabinet officers was made without listening to managing politicians, and was a sincere effort to apply business principles to his work. Even in the case of those appointments which were most criticised—Mr. Stewart's to the Treasury and Mr. Bore's to the Navy Department—it was plain that he had used his own judgment, and had concluded that those departments could be well administered by business men who had made a success of great domestic and foreign commercial transactions.

The discovery that Mr. Stewart was ineligible by law was a disappointment to him. He was now subjected to the ordinary political pressure which tests the administrative principles of a President in office, and the appointment of Mr. Boutwell was received by all friends of reform as discouraging evidence that his predilection in favor of business principles in administration was no deep and decided conviction. In yielding to those who claimed to be party leaders in Congress, he went at one step the whole length of filling the most important and most distinctively business place in the Administration by a typical political appointment. It soon became apparent, also, that it

was his misfortune to have no standard of fitness for civil employment, such as actual service under his own eye had given him for military office. As he had himself been advanced to the highest civil duties without special training in affairs, he was modestly inclined to assume that other important positions could be creditably filled by men who lacked both experience and learning. His natural reticence made it difficult even for those who were his proper advisers to hold with him the free conversational conferences which are the soul of administrative coöperation. His military habits led him to think it was for the Executive to decide, and for all other administrative officers simply to obey. He was ready to leave a large latitude to subordinates upon condition that they should uncomplainingly accept his will when, even without conference with them, other influences had persuaded him to give direction to any special matter.

His love of discipline made him listen favorably to the arguments of the "Machine," who likened party organization to that of an army, and preached unquestioning obedience to the word of command as a merit in a party man as in a soldier. It is easy to see how mischiefs would flow from such a habit of mind. In the absence of full discussion and conference with the great officers of State, irregular influences were pretty sure to have undue weight, and "kitchen cabinets" were pretty sure to be formed. The President would be committed to some wrong purpose or mistaken conclusion before those with whom he should have consulted were aware of it, and even if he were convinced of the necessity of reconsidering, the ungracious task of presenting objections against a declared intention gradually produced irritation.

For a year, however, these things were annoyances to those immediately concerned, rather than matters of serious moment, though they impressed with vague fears all who became aware of them and who earnestly desired that the best tendencies in the Republican party should prevail. Then came the negotiations of the San Domingo treaty, one of the most astounding events which ever occurred in the history of a constitutional government. The constitutional power of annexation by treaty has been as gravely questioned as any which the national Government has ever exercised, and even among those who regard it as settled by precedent, it is felt that no public act should be more carefully guarded by all the forms of diplomacy and all the checks of public Congressional discussion. But General Babcock, the President's aide-de-camp, sent ostensibly to make an engineer's reconnaissance of a bay recommended by naval officers as a coaling station, brought back a treaty for the cession and annexation of the domain of a foreign nation, and the incorporation of such foreign people into our own nationality. This treaty he had negotiated not only without authority of law, but without the authority, consent, or knowledge of the State Department of the United States or of the Cabinet. That the motive was the enriching of a ring of private persons upon concessions from the then Government of San Domingo, was more than suspected. What might have passed as an absurd if not insane usurpation of power by a subordinate officer, became a source of public danger when the President adopted the act of his aide, directed the treaty to be *pro forma* signed by a consular agent, submitted it to the Senate, and entered personally into a vigorous effort to secure its ratification. The decline and fall of the Republican party properly dates from that event, though the consequences were delayed and other things added to the downward impetus.

Mr. Sumner was Chairman of the Committee on Foreign Relations in the Senate, and so earnestly opposed the treaty, both upon the principle contained in it and upon the methods of procuring it, that a permanent breach between him and the President was made. It was believed by well-informed persons that Mr. Fish had sought to retire from the Secretaryship of State, but had yielded to the insistence of the President, and to a general wish of his party friends that he should not abandon the direction of our foreign affairs at so critical a time; for the Geneva arbitration, the Cuban insurrection, and other matters were making our

relations to foreign Powers very delicate. But by remaining in office, even upon the most binding pledge that no further interference with the duties of his department should be permitted, he was still obliged to assume the *ex-post-facto* responsibility for the treaty. Mr. Sumner believed he had the most distinct assurances during Babcock's absence that no treaty of annexation was dreamed of, and so far as the Government was concerned, such assurances could have been given with the sincerest honesty; but when the Secretary was induced, from a sense of public duty, to accept the burden of the treaty, his mouth was closed so that he could not explain his own previous relations to it, and Mr. Sumner, thinking he had been deceived, broke the long and cordial friendship which had existed between them. Mr. Schurz shared the objections of Mr. Sumner to the treaty, and was equally startled by what they suspected of the unconstitutional method of negotiating it. The two Senators made vigorous and uncompromising war upon the project, and the treaty was defeated, but not till other political evils had resulted.

In the effort to procure votes for its ratification the President was brought into unwontedly close contact with the most demoralized and demoralizing element in his party—the "carpet-bag" politicians of the South. Intimating that they could ill afford to antagonize the influence of Mr. Sumner among the freedmen, they still held out promises of assistance if their wishes in other respects might be regarded. They wished the removal of the Attorney-General and the substitution of a Southern Republican. Mr. Hoar was summarily dismissed, the manner of it being as far removed from the custom of civilized governments in that respect as was the original negotiation of the treaty.

The opportunity was well improved by the leaders of the Republican "Machine." They adopted the habit of appearing before the President and urging their views in the form of earnest harangues, neither asking nor expecting immediate response, but content to await the effect of reiterated assertion upon his mind. His unwillingness to yield his own purpose made him quick to see the advantages of coöperation, his singular reticence deprived him in the main of the suggestions or criticisms of his constitutional advisers, the absence of well-defined convictions as to public policy made him more easily yield to the methods of such a coalition, and before the midsummer recess was reached he was practically "solid" with Conkling and Chandler.

Mr. Motley was next recalled from England as a punishment of his friend Mr. Sumner, upon pretexts so flimsy as only to make more demonstrably evident the fact that it was done without just cause. It was done against the general sentiment of the Republican party and against the most earnest protest of many of the first men of the land "outside of politics." Before Congress met again in December there had been a practical reconstruction of the Administration. Belknap was now in the War Department, Robeson in that of the Navy, and Delano in the Interior. The power of Babcock and his associates near the person of the President was not diminished, and if they had been warned off the domain of the State Department, their activity and their malign influence were chronicled in the quick succession of scandals concerning the bonded warehouses, the sales of public lands, the army tradership contracts, the naval contracts, and the whiskey frauds.

The public, with a generosity born of true gratitude, refused to connect the personal character of the President with the notorious profligacy in office which could not be concealed; yet a respectable portion of his party refused to support him for a second term, and a convention met at Cincinnati to nominate an independent candidate. The loose organization of a mass convention gave the opportunity for its capture by a few expert "workers," and the absurdity of the Greeley nomination made the reflection of Grant a foregone conclusion. The despotic control of the party by the "Machine" leaders, the charitable hope of hosts of grateful citizens that there would be a reform within the Administration, and the distrust of the Democratic party, combined to make victory easy.

The hoped-for reform did not come. The President refused to believe evil of his personal friends and dependents; his tenacity of purpose and of affection was successfully appealed to to prevent his abandoning them "under fire," and the scandals only grew in number and in proportions. The appointment of Mr. Bristow to the Treasury Department was, however, accepted as proof that thorough work was meant with the suspected irregularities there. When prosecutions were begun, and Babcock was indicted, the President's words, "Let no guilty man escape," were again hailed with delight by all who wished well to the country. Yet Babcock was not convicted, and the Secretary found his position intolerable. The managers of the whiskey ring had the effrontery to claim that they levied their assessments upon distillers and cheated the Treasury to raise a fund to insure a third term to the President, and that the end justified the means. When some of them were convicted and sent to the penitentiary, they even alleged an understanding that they were to be pardoned out.

The injury done the President by these things was undoubtedly great, but the willingness, nay, the eager desire, of the nation to interpret all things consistently with the honor of their hero, was a better protection to him than the most skillful arguments of party advocates. They believed that he had been abused by those who owed everything to him, and that his own purposes had remained as pure and as patriotic as when he was conducting the weary campaign of the Wilderness. The second term closed with a pervading opinion, nevertheless, that his power to discriminate character was not such as is needed in one to whom hundreds of thousands of appointments are intrusted, and that the country must find some way of requiting his military services that should place a third term of the Presidency beyond expectation or faintest hope.

In our foreign relations, when once the San Domingo scandal had passed by, there was nothing to regret. Our attitude toward the Cuban insurrection was that of dignity and steady repression of filibustering. The Geneva arbitration was skillfully and happily conducted to an end. Fenianism was squelched when it took the form of invasion, and if the representatives of the nation abroad were not always such as should have been chosen, a careful supervision of their official acts prevented mischievous consequences. The public debt was greatly reduced, and the material prosperity of the country was marvellously increased.

General Grant's tour of the world after he became again a private citizen filled to the full the wildest imagination of the people as to the place to which the nation had grown in the world's estimation, and as to the connection of it all with the triumphant conclusion of the civil war and with the really great qualities of the man who had conducted our armies. Many things in his career had given them sorrow, but the strong impulse of a grateful people has been to attribute to himself the deeds which have given him and the country imperishable glory, and to lay at the door of others or to impute to amiable weaknesses the things that have diminished his fame. With heartfelt earnestness the American people unite in the prayer, May he rest in peace!

THE PALL MALL GAZETTE AND THE CRIMINAL LAW AMENDMENT BILL.

LONDON, July 16.

THE sensation produced in England by the publication in the *Pall Mall Gazette* of the series of articles which your readers have already heard of, has been quite without precedent in recent years. It was all the greater because the safety-valve of the press generally did not act. While hardly any other subject was talked of for some days among men, these revelations were absolutely ignored by the rest of the London newspapers. As the evidence on the faith of which they were made is now being privately submitted to a small volunteer committee, I need not discuss the question of their accuracy, but

shall endeavor to describe, while the matter is still fresh, the way in which public opinion in London received them.

The first impulse was one of condemnation. People were shocked beyond description at seeing these horrible stories sold everywhere, read by boys in the streets, by domestic servants in families where the newspaper was taken in. Some called aloud for a prosecution of the journal under the statute which punishes obscene publications. The proprietor and editor of the paper were accused of having sought, by creating a sensation, to increase its sale, in forgetfulness of the enormous risk which they ran of finding it thrown over by the respectable public, and themselves visited with social penalties. Many persons of irreproachable life, who entirely agreed with and approved the object of the articles, were shocked by the manner of the thing. They treated the articles as an unusually violent development of the passion for "sensation effects" which has been visible in our press for some time past, and in which this particular journal is charged with having led the way. Severe censure was passed upon the language in which the narratives were couched. "Either a burning indignation, or a dry and passionless statement of the most salient facts, would have been," they said, "fitter for the occasion than the dramatically colored descriptions, clever bits of phrasing, and touches of cynical humor with which the writer worked." "Or why not," others asked, "have been content with printing these narratives for private distribution among members of the legislature, magistrates, clergymen, and other persons whose opinion would influence legislation? Why sow them broadcast in a soil where they may do much incidental mischief?" Nor did the passages in which the rich are charged with ruining the children of the poor pass uncensured. It was urged that there is really no class question involved; that the daughters of the lower middle class suffer nearly as much as those of workingmen; that poor parents are just as ready to sacrifice their offspring as wealthy profligates to corrupt them; and that, if it is the wealthy who do the evil, it is also among the wealthy that many of the most strenuous reformers and apostles of social purity have been and are still found.

Such were the comments which one heard from the vast majority of the upper classes during the first four or five days after the publication began. Since then there has, I think, been a sensible change of view. A few of our best public men, a good many leading clergymen, a still larger number of religious laymen, declared that an evil so foul must be fought by all possible weapons. Those who personally knew the editor of the newspaper were convinced of the purity and elevation of his motives, and their defence of him from the odious imputation of seeking to gain circulation in this way told upon the public mind. Many had from the first said that although nothing but success—success in raising a wave of popular feeling—could justify the publication of the articles, success would justify it; and it became plain that such a wave was rising. If it continues to rise, if it rises high enough to secure the passing of the Criminal Law Amendment Bill (now before Parliament) in a satisfactory form, a substantial result will have been gained which will compensate for the evil of familiarizing people's minds with horrors which, however much they may repel all pure minds, have a deplorable attraction for those already inclined to be morbid. It is still too soon to attempt to weigh the loss and gain by these disclosures, nor will the best and wisest men ever agree on a point which depends on the extent to which one is influenced by emotion and sentiment, on the one hand, and on the other by a fastidious

taste and a distrust in the power of legislation to check evils rooted in human nature. But for the present the tide is running more strongly in favor of the *Pall Mall Gazette* than it did last week, and if the law is vigorously amended this session—nor does any one deny that it needs amendment—the credit will be largely due to the courage of that paper. Those who approve its conduct and refuse to criticise the manner of its articles because they feel grateful to it for the boldness with which it has attacked the evil, are among our best leaders of opinion.

That the crime and wickedness which it has described do exist is unquestionable. I need hardly, however, caution your readers against supposing that they exist to any great extent, or indicate a general rottenness in English society. No one who knows the other countries of Europe will think that England stands below them. In fact, the very indignation and astonishment which these disclosures have excited prove that the enormous majority of our people have had no notion that such things went on, or that the law was inadequate to deal with them.

It may be said, and it will no doubt be said, by those French and German journalists who represent us as a people of Pharisees, caring only for whitening the outside of the sepulchre, that the best evidence of our sincerity in the promotion of moral purity and repression of crime would have been to deliberately amend our criminal law years ago, instead of leaving a newspaper to shame us suddenly into it. It is true enough that this very Criminal Law Amendment Bill came before Parliament in the two last sessions, and in both sessions failed to pass. But the reason is to be sought not in indifference to existing evils, but partly in our habitual reserve on these topics—a reserve which left nearly everybody in ignorance of the true state of things—and partly in the defects of our legislative machinery. This question is only one of many social questions which have urgently called for the attention of Parliament for years past, but which Parliament has wanted the leisure to deal with. The housing of the poor, the reconstruction of local government, the reform of charities, the improvement of the education of the middle classes, the codification of the criminal law, the cheapening of all legal procedure, the recognition of the rights of mothers to the guardianship of their children, the simplification of the land laws—these are only a few out of the many subjects on which legislation has long been needed, but which the House of Commons has failed to undertake. So much of its time is spent in debates on foreign affairs, so much is wasted in allowing vain and garrulous men to protract debates upon all questions, so many opportunities for obstruction are afforded by its antiquated rules of procedure, that the Ministry of the day is able to pass comparatively few measures each session, and chooses those behind which it finds the greatest popular pressure, and by the passing of which it hopes to earn the greatest popular favor. However important other matters may be, however much it may itself desire to deal with them, the opposition of a small knot of obstructive members defeats its efforts simply by wasting time. There are every year some bills which must be passed because political capital is to be made out of them. There are others for which a sudden temporary need has arisen—such as those relating to Ireland which have figured so largely during the last five years. Add to these two classes the debates on votes of censure directed against the foreign and colonial administration of the Government, and very little time remains. Hence those changes in the law which a wise and benevolent despotism, like that of the Roman Empire under the Antonines, would devote its first attention to, are apt to come last

and fare worst under our parliamentary system. Every instance which brings this unfortunate position home to the minds of the people, adds to the strength of the case for a sweeping reform in parliamentary procedure, and for the relieving of Parliament from all such parts of its present work as can be properly delegated to local representative bodies. Y.

Correspondence.

ORTHOEPY AMONG THE PHILOLOGISTS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: One would think that at the meetings of an association of professed linguists like that of the American Philological Association, one would be entitled at least to hear the English language correctly articulated and pronounced with approximate care. At the meetings of this assemblage of distinguished scholars, if anywhere, the lover of good English would naturally expect pure intonation, distinct utterance of vowels and consonants according to their current values, and an absence of vulgarity, carelessness, and ignorance on the part of our teachers. True, most of these gentlemen have devoted their lives and substance to the appropriation and assimilation of Latin and Greek only, and can hardly be expected to have turned their attention to so paltry a matter as the pronunciation of English. They have fought a lifetime over the Continental *versus* the English pronunciation of the classical tongues, or the vexed question of modern Greek *versus* ancient Greek pronunciation, but as to the *English* pronunciation of *English*—heaven save the mark!—that never seems to have entered the minds of the majority of the paper-reading members of the Association.

This is a hard saying, but it is nevertheless true. How shocked were one's ears on hearing, at the recent meeting of the Association at New Haven, man after man, scholar after scholar, get up and read important and edifying papers in every variety of harsh, nasalized, twangy, unmelodious pronunciation, converting all the *u*'s and *eu*'s into double *o*'s (institution, nooze, dooze), and *ou*'s into *ow*'s (*out*, *house*), twisting the final *r*'s into such hideous forms as may be represented by father-r-r, omitting the *h*'s after the *w*'s, turning *o*'s into *u*'s (*wun't*, *du'n't*, *stun*, *hull* [whole]), and similar vagaries and eccentricities. There were, of course, exceptions to this manner of pronunciation, but in general the sounds above given were heard in the preponderance. The Western men had their twang, the Eastern and Southern men had theirs: there was no uniformity of pronunciation. The Bostonian could be recognized by his shibboleth—the pronunciation of the word *always*; the New Yorker showed his early associations with the Irish nurse by a certain something which can only be defined as a sort of Hibernianism of pronunciation; the Westerner was perilously near some of the pronunciations which we have learned to characterize as "Hoosier"; and the Southerner was sing-songy. The most elementary knowledge of elocution was often absent in the reading of articles which interested and instructed the audience by their learning, research, or ingenuity. One could not help wishing that these accomplished linguists had cast a pitying glance at their own tongues (if such a physiological antic is possible) and given them half a chance in their youth. One cannot help wishing even now that the rising generation of younger scholars in the multitude of their languages will cease to ignore their own.

PHILOLOGUS.

NEW YORK, July 21, 1885.

CABINET IRRESPONSIBILITY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with pleasure the complimentary letters upon your twentieth anniversary, and, for obvious reasons, no one can echo their sentiments more heartily than myself. Having been a continuous subscriber and reader from the first number, I hope that its fiftieth and its hundredth year may find the *Nation* still prosperous in the promotion of high and noble ends.

The highest compliment I can pay to your liberality is to ask you to print this letter; but you will believe that I approach the subject from the administrative point of view, without the slightest bias either toward person or party. It seems to me that the Secretary of the Navy has incurred a grave responsibility in his action toward the firm of John Roach & Son. Of course that action is beyond suspicion of personal interest, and it may be both conscientious and wise, but it is of a kind which he ought to be called upon to justify publicly before Congress and the country.

The facts, as I understand them, are these: In the early part of Garfield's Administration Congress directed the building of certain ships-of-war, under the supervision of a Naval Advisory Board, to be appointed by the Secretary of the Navy. That Board, besides two civilians, included six naval officers, whose character and professional standing would do honor to any service in the world. The name of Admiral Simpson alone is a guarantee that there will be no fraud to which he is a party. The Board, after studying the latest improvements at home and abroad, made their plans, and Mr. Roach—by whatever means and on whatever terms—got the contract. The *Dolphin* was completed, was approved by the Naval Board, and paid for within \$15,000, while three other steel cruisers are still in process. Upon the change of Administration, Mr. Whitney calls another Advisory Board, against the composition of which, it may be presumed, there is nothing to be said, and this Board reports against the *Dolphin*, which ship, moreover, upon trial, failed in certain requirements of speed. Upon this Mr. Whitney declines to accept her, or to pay the \$15,000; and, having secured the opinion of the Attorney-General, declares that he will call upon the bondsmen of Mr. Roach, and that the contracts for the other three cruisers are null and void. Mr. Roach's investment is said to amount to some fifteen or twenty millions, implying, of course, a very large indebtedness. The decision of the Government has destroyed his credit and brought him to failure and probable ruin—certainly to enormous loss—while some 4,000 men have been thrown out of work in this time of depression. If these details are not correct, so much the more reason is there for what I shall have to say presently.

Several considerations here present themselves. First. Of more importance than any ship or any amount of money is this, that the faith of the Government should be kept inviolate. The very fact that the Government can crush any individual or corporation, should make it scrupulous to excess in keeping even any fairly implied agreement. I remember that early in the war the Government had made large contracts for supplies on an assumed cash basis. After keeping its creditors waiting for several months, it compelled them to take certificates of indebtedness, then selling at 80 to 90 cents. The natural result was that for everything bought afterward it had to pay two prices, and to deal not with responsible and honorable merchants, but with speculators, who were prepared to meet the Treasury in a game of trickery. Even from a money point of view it would be better for the

Government to pay the cost of the *Dolphin* and sink her in the ocean than to give ground for a charge of violation of contract. Whether this has been done is, of course, a question.

Second. It is equally important that the action of the Government should be continuous. The Democrats have come into power on the ground of maladministration by the Republicans. They may protest as much as they please, but they are bound to carry out in spirit as well as in letter all agreements, good or bad, which have been made in legal and constitutional form. To repudiate them on technical grounds may discredit the Republicans, but it will also discredit the whole Government, and be fatal to any dealings in the future which may depend on a continuance of administration. Even Lord Randolph Churchill admits that he is bound to carry out the engagements of Mr. Gladstone's Government.

Third. It is curious to see how, with all our morbid dread of one-man power, we slide into it. Probably there never was a contract drawn yet in which a hostile lawyer, if it was left to his discretion, could not find reasons satisfactory to himself for declaring it invalid. Mr. Garland may be the greatest jurist and the purest patriot in the United States, but he is a human being, and as such liable to prejudice and error. No one man, perfectly shielded from public responsibility, ought to have such enormous power over private fortunes. I say shielded from responsibility, because he can be reached only by a resolution of inquiry or an investigating committee appointed by a majority of the houses, both of which can be evaded with perfect ease.

Let us now turn to Mr. Roach's position. We will suppose, for the sake of argument (and as far as I know it is a pure supposition), that Mr. Roach took the contract below actual cost, trusting either to get relief from Congress or to "scamp" his work; and further, that if the Naval Advisory Board could not be bought, there were others who could be, and that the transaction reeked with corruption from beginning to end. Still I say it is less the fault of Mr. Roach than of the mode in which our Government is carried on. Everything is secret and everything irresponsible. The various committees of Congress which have to do with the navy work under cover and impersonally, with no cohesion or concert of action. The House votes under cast-iron rules and with suppression of all debate. If the Senate, which does debate, differs, the whole matter is settled by half-a-dozen men in a conference committee. The Navy Department, from the Secretary down, works in absolute secrecy, except so far as the gossip of party newspapers is concerned, and has, moreover, no power to modify any action of Congress. Even the Naval Advisory Board, however high in professional standing, may not possess business qualities, and there is nobody responsible for its action.

In such a chaos of authorities, lobbying and intrigue are the only means of getting anything done. Without them nothing is possible; with them, almost anything. How does it happen that the only firm with which the Government does business is tainted with such suspicions? Simply because no firm can get the business that will not do the things which the Government methods require. The technical requirements of the contract appear to have been the approval of the Naval Board, and a certain degree of speed. To require the approval of another Naval Board, appointed by another Secretary, after the ship was built, hardly seems consistent with the conditions originally prescribed by Congress. The required rate of speed may not have been possible with the plans prescribed by the Naval Board, and which Mr. Roach was obliged to accept. In

view of the doubt, a deduction from the price would seem to be a sufficient penalty. It is said—and, as it is impossible to get authentic information, we must rely upon rumor—that Mr. Whitney states the difference between himself and Mr. Roach to be only \$15,000 or \$20,000; but to take such severe methods of enforcing his own view is hardly to make Government contracts in favor with responsible merchants.

The conclusion is the same which forces itself on the mind whatever branch of the Administration you take up—the inevitable necessity of Cabinet responsibility. Publicity in advance is the only safeguard against fraud on the one side or hasty tampering with the faith of the Government on the other. If they had been subject to daily public cross-examination by individual members of Congress, the deeds of Robeson and Belknap would have been impossible—that is, if they did what they were charged with doing, which has never been very clearly proved. If Secretaries Hunt and Chandler had been constantly held to public account of their actions, the terms of the contract, the doings of the Advisory Board, and the exact extent of the Government obligation would have been known in advance, and if a contractor made bids below cost, expecting to indemnify himself by cheating, it would not have been necessary to wait till an immense fortune was embarked in the enterprise before the hand of authority descended upon him.

G. B.

BOSTON, June 25, 1885.

EFFICIENCY OF THE GOVERNMENT CLERKS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In No. 1036 you assert that "there has never been any doubt among well-informed people that the average amount of work turned off every day by a Government clerk fell far below not only what he should accomplish, but also what the employee of any private establishment would have to render on penalty of dismissal for inefficiency."

There is no doubt that people considered well-informed have exactly this opinion of the industry of Government clerks; but I venture to say that it is not based upon observation or the sifting of testimony, but is arrived at deductively. For so many years the basis of their selection has been so unbusinesslike, the usual incentives to industry so obviously wanting, that it might seem entirely safe to conclude that the great majority of clerks in the departments are inefficient who have "failed on earth," and officious political meddlers who neglect their proper work.

But are not the "well-informed" apt to overlook certain considerations which partially counteract the pernicious tendencies inherent in the spoils system? It must be remembered that there is a vast amount of work to be done every day in the departments; that each clerk has his part of it to do; that he is responsible for its being well done, and that this responsibility is perfectly clear and indivisible. I mean to say that his initials are placed on every claim examined, account adjusted, and letter written. Inasmuch as his work passes through other offices where it is carefully reviewed, and inasmuch as any error therein can be easily traced to him, he is, unquestionably, prompted to be careful. But this is not all. Reports of the amount of work done by each clerk during the month are submitted to the heads of bureaus, who submit a printed report annually to the Secretary of the amount of work done in their respective offices. This causes competition between clerks and between offices. There is, moreover, to be taken into consideration the force of what may be termed departmental opinion. Shirkers are soon detected and

despised not only because they are shirkers, but because (and this is not generally known) they lay burdens too grievous to be borne upon the rest of the clerks, who must needs despatch a disproportionate share of the work; for the work must be done. The evil of the spoils system in this respect was not that it led to public work being slighted or badly done, but that it cast its performance upon a part only of the force. The labor of these was simply prodigious.

About eighteen months ago, having passed an examination before the Civil-Service Commission, I was chosen by one of the bureau officers of the Treasury. I shared at that time the opinions of the "well-informed" concerning the general inefficiency of Government clerks. I had for several years earned my own living, and had seen the earnestness of the strife which marks those who try to "get on in the world." Belonging to a political party in opposition to that of nearly all of those by whom I found myself surrounded, it must be admitted that my observations of them were most likely searching, and that my testimony now given possesses not a few of the elements which constitute satisfactory evidence. I soon learned that the average intelligence, industry, and efficiency of each office with which I had to deal was astonishingly high. I have in my possession, and I am ready to furnish whenever occasion calls for it, statistics of the amount of work done in some of them that will seem incredible to "employees of any private establishment."

The ignorance of the real character of the great body of Government clerks is illustrated every time a new secretary or bureau officer is installed. He is almost always convinced that the clerks are a lazy set of routine workers, and forms the very best intentions to make many changes and removals. In a short time he discovers and owns, as Mr. Manning is alleged recently to have owned, that very much to his surprise they are ready, apt, and wonderfully skilled in their particular work. All of the eulogistic utterances of the late Comptroller of the Currency, Mr. Knox, and of many others whose testimony should be considered valuable, have been, it would seem, taken as mere graceful compliments to Government clerks, paid by late superior officers who did not mean any real weight to be attached to them.

The evil result of this popular ignorance is twofold. It encourages pressure for office, and it tends to keep up the "factory system" in the departments. If the real facts were known—that Government clerks, and especially chiefs of division (who are not within the protection of civil-service rules, and whose places are, therefore, expected by the "friends" of the Administration), have to perform intellectual labor demanding in many instances the strenuous exertions of a well-drilled mind, that they must be possessed of no little stock of general information, and that they must know intimately (if they expect the esteem of their co-workers and subordinates) the many details of the vast machinery of Government, there would be less solicitation for office, less condemnation of the Administration for retaining men who have acquired peculiar skill and knowledge. At the same time public opinion would approve of, if it did not demand, a revocation of many of those regulations which now injure the self-respect of a set of people containing a great number whose intelligence and devotion to duty cannot be too highly extolled.

Will not the *Nation*, instead of reasoning *a priori*, secure evidence from the most trustworthy sources concerning both the amount and the character of the work performed by Government clerks in each of the departments? R.

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 26, 1885.

A PRIMER OF REVENGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your correspondent Mr. Josiah W. Leeds, in No. 1042 of the *Nation*, quotes the following words of Herr Herman Molkenboer, of Bonn: "The imperfect demonstration of the injustice and the immorality of war, by the legally appointed teacher, is the chief reason that wars continue to be carried on."

Those of the *Nation's* readers who are interested in the project for a "Permanent International Council of Education—one of the principal prospective duties of which shall be that the educators of the different countries represented therein shall press upon their legislators the need there is for settling international disputes by other and better means than war"—will, I am sure, find nutritive food for further reflection in a fact which I beg leave to cite. It would appear that an important school text-book, greatly in use in the communal schools of France at the present time, so far from urging that the rising generation "should regard war in general as a divergence from the true course of a nation's history," distinctly incites the pupil to revenge the recent German invasion of France—teaching the young idea to "shoot," as one might say, with a vengeance. Paul Bert, the distinguished author of the text-book, "L'Instruction civique," makes bold to teach young French boys: "... vous avez tous entendu parler de ce terrible temps où Paris était entouré par les Prussiens. Si l'en n'a pu avoir la victoire, s'il a fallu laisser jusqu'à nouvel ordre entre les mains de l'ennemi les Français d'Alsace et de Lorraine, du moins on a sauvé l'honneur, et c'est le principal. . . ."

A friskily free translation of this warlike paragraph might easily read: "Just you wait a bit, boys, and we'll smash the Prussians yet—you bet!" The survivors of the Commune, certainly, would take issue with those of us who see wisdom in peace congresses. Their very school-books proclaim that they are waiting for an ultimate "sweet by and by" of settlement by the sword—for a day of revenge upon Prussia. The French—almost to a man—would, so far as Herr Molkenboer's country is concerned, throw diplomacy to the winds and pin no shred of faith to international arbitration.—Yours with great respect,

CHARLES WILLIAM WOOLSEY.

ST. MORITZ, SWITZERLAND, July 9, 1885.

DRAGOMANOFF AND STEPNIAK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Some time ago, when a German periodical in this country printed a statement that Professor Dragomanoff was the editor of the revolutionary journal, *Obshtcheye Dyelo* (The Common Cause), printed in Geneva, he requested me as a personal favor to him to correct the error, adding that he wished it known that he always signs his full name to everything he publishes. The single exception I have known him to make to that rule was in the case of some articles in *Volnoye Slovo* (The Free Word), signed only by his initials, "M. D." As he was then editor of that periodical, this fact cannot be considered inconsistent with his statement in his letter to me.

I have before me over twenty pamphlets published by Mr. Dragomanoff, as well as every number of *Volnoye Slovo* from its foundation up to its suspension, and am at a loss to understand how his name could have been thought of in connection with the authorship of "Stepniak's" works. The most superficial comparison of Mr. Dragomanoff's voluminous writings with "Stepniak's" attitude toward terrorism could not fail to convince the reader of the impossibility of the identity of Dragomanoff with "Stepniak."

Dragomanoff has been for years the most determined opponent of the terrorists. *Volnoye Slovo* itself reviewed "Stepniak's" "Underground Russia" most mercilessly, being especially offended by the tone of adoration with which the author seemed to treat Ossinsky, Lizogub, and the Helfman. I know enough of both Professor Dragomanoff and "Stepniak" to be able to assure you that neither of them is capable of acting such a double part.

Volnoye Slovo has again and again been charged by the Geneva terrorists with having been founded, under Ignatieff's auspices, for the express purpose of fighting terrorism abroad. In such discredit is Mr. Dragomanoff held by the terrorists that, when it became known that I was corresponding with him about the theoretical grounds of his differences with those whose natural ally he is, I was remonstrated with by a friend in Geneva in the most serious terms: "I was thunder-struck (*menya kak gromom porazilo*) to learn that you are in communication with him!" In justice to Professor Dragomanoff, I must add that, in spite of the violence with which his integrity has been called in question, I, personally, never had any reason to doubt his sincerity in lending his powerful talents to opposing a cause he once supported, though I could not but regret his opposition.

I have no doubt that a denial of the authorship of "Stepniak's" works will not be long in forthcoming from the pen of Mr. Dragomanoff himself.—Respectfully,
IVAN PANIN.

GRAFTON, MASS., July 25, 1885.

[We have received a communication to the same effect from another Russian among our readers, who styles Dragomanoff a mere separatist "Ukrainophil."—ED. NATION.]

OFFENSIVE PARTISANS IN ANCIENT ROME.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Tacitus has expressed with a graphic touch the unhappy state of mind of the "offensive partisan" who is anticipating removal. The species, it seems, was not unknown to the early Empire:

"Exauctorati per eos dies tribuni, e prætorio Antonius Taurus et Antonius Naso, ex urbanis cohortibus Æmilius Pacensis, e vigiliis Julius Fronto. Nec remedium in ceteros fuit, sed metus initium, tanquam per artem et formidinem singuli pellerentur, omnibus suspectis." (Histories, ch. xx, bk. i.) E. M. BROWN.

ANN ARBOR, MICH., July 21, 1885.

Notes.

CUPPLES, UPHAM & CO., Boston, announce 'Thackeray's London: His Haunts, and the Scenes of His Novels,' by Wm. H. Rideing. An original etched portrait of Thackeray and a facsimile of the original MS. of 'The Newcomes' form the illustrations. A special limited edition of finer quality will also be offered to the public.

'The America's Cup: How it was won by the yacht *America* in 1851, and how it has since been defended,' by Capt. Roland F. Coffin; and 'A Canterbury Pilgrimage,' ridden, written, and illustrated by Joseph and Elizabeth Robins Pen-nell, are in the press of Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Ticknor & Co., who succeed to the late firm of J. R. Osgood & Co., consist of Messrs. Benj. H. Ticknor, Thomas B. Ticknor, and George F. Godfrey. Their announcements include 'The Haunted Adjutant, and Other Stories,' by the late Edmund Quincy; 'A Narrative of Military Services,' by Gen. W. B. Hazen; 'In Camp and Battle with the Washington Artillery of New Or-

leans,' by Adj. William Miller Owen; 'Japanese Homes and their Surroundings,' by Prof. Edward S. Morse; 'Social Silhouettes,' by Edgar Fawcett; Howells's 'Rise of Silas Lapham,' and James's 'Bostonians.'

Macmillan & Co. have in press a new and revised edition of Pater's 'Marius the Epicurean,' expressly designed for the American market, and to that end forming one volume instead of two.

Among English announcements we notice a new volume by Sir Henry Maine on 'Popular Government,' four essays on the following topics: The Progress of Popular Government, the Nature of Democracy, the Age of Progress, and the Constitution of the United States; also, a 'History of the United States from the Foundation of Virginia to the Reconstruction of the United States,' by Percy Greg. Both these works will be published by John Murray.

'The Housewife's Library,' just published by B. F. Johnson & Co., of Richmond, Va., is a book with a history. No intimation is given in it that it has been issued before. It was, however, published in 1883, by Hubbard Brothers, of Philadelphia, with the title now borne by the new issue. Then, in 1884, two books appeared with the imprint of the Cottage Library Publishing-house, of Philadelphia, and entitled 'The Latest and Best Cook Book,' and 'How to Make Home Happy.' These two books were respectively the first and last halves of 'The Housewife's Library.' The book as it now reappears has an appendix called "Self-Supporting Employment for Southern Ladies."

Cupples, Upham & Co., of Boston, have just published 'Cupples Howe, Mariner; a Tale of the Sea,' by George Cupples. This is an old friend with a new name. It was published by Shepard & Gill, of Boston, in 1873, with the title, 'The Deserted Ship; a Story of the Atlantic: being adventures in the early life of Cupples Howe, Mariner.' The new issue is printed from the old plates, but the headlines of the pages, which in the old edition read 'The Deserted Ship,' have been carefully removed. No intimation is given in the book of this fact of previous publication under a different title.

The third volume of the Works of Alexander Hamilton, edited by Mr. Henry Cabot Lodge (G. P. Putnam's Sons), is capable of interesting in a high degree any student of the history of our national political economy, and most partisans of one or other of the present conflicting systems. It is mainly devoted to discussions of taxation and finance, a national bank, coinage and the mint, a report on industry and commerce. Mr. Lodge's notes are perceptibly tinged, in this volume, by his party affiliations, and have a sitting-on-the-fence quality which is instructive. Thus, of Hamilton's report on coinage and the mint, he says the chief interest "centres in the discussion of the comparative merits of a double or single standard. Hamilton decides in favor of the former, and his argument has a very present and immediate value. It is needless to say," he adds, "that he, of course, did not favor the overvaluation of one metal"—i. e., in the slang of the present day, was not "unfriendly to silver," or was not a "gold-bug." Again, Mr. Lodge points with pride to Hamilton as the father of protection to American industry, yet leaves a loophole for a change in the national policy. "The business sense of the American people is unsurpassed: they have protection because they think it pays, and when they are convinced that free trade will pay better they will have it instead, and not before."

Mr. N. Ponce de Leon's 'Diccionario Tecnológico Ingles-Español' reaches in its thirteenth part the word socket.

The Concord Summer School of Philosophy appears as an incentive to bibliography in the July

Bulletin of the Mercantile Library of Philadelphia. The fact that the School is chiefly occupying itself this season with Goethe's genius and work has led Mr. John Edmands to provide for his patrons in the Quaker City some reading notes on Goethe, referring solely to works in the Mercantile Library.

Bartlett's 'Bibliography of Rhode Island' (1864) is sharply reviewed in *Book Notes*, July 18 (Providence). Mr. Rider plainly charges the Providence *Journal's* genial criticism with the encouragement of this and similar historical works in which Rhode Island has been prolific during the past thirty-five years.

J. H. Bufford's Sons send us a large lithographic portrait of General Grant, which is a fairly good superficial presentation of the man; and a lithographic group, President Cleveland and his Cabinet. The latter picture cannot escape the charge of woodenness, yet, so far as we can judge, is successful in mere likeness.

The full-length portrait of Grant engraved on steel in line and stipple, and published by J. C. Buttre, is for the essential particulars—the head, expression, and general bearing—a very satisfactory performance. A more artistic sense in the designer would have put more beauty in the accessories, as in the case of the Cleveland group; but the interest in the face preponderates, as it ought.

Still a third likeness of Grant, a bust portrait of large size engraved on steel, has been issued by R. Dudensing & Son. Without being an heroic design, it is calculated to give general satisfaction as a memorial.

Better than any of the foregoing in execution is the steel engraving by H. Gugler published by Leonard Watson in 1871 and now reissued. It represents General Grant in military costume and in the prime of manhood, whereas it is the older and less vigorous man who is depicted in the portraits just named. The expression, however, seems to us to leave something to be desired. As regards the size of face, this ranks third on our list, but is still large, being a bust portrait.

The English theatrical year-book, 'Dramatic Notes,' after a year's suspension, has now appeared with a double number, covering the years 1883 and 1884. It does not compare favorably with its French rivals, the 'Almanach des Spectacles' or the 'Annales du Théâtre,' for it is shabby in its criticism and slovenly in its style. Mr. Austin Brereton, who is now responsible for it, does not understand the duties of his position as well as his predecessors, Mr. C. E. Pascoe and Mr. William H. Rideing: in their hands 'Dramatic Notes' was more exact and less flippantly personal. Nor are the illustrations as good as in the earlier issues: then they were pen-and-ink sketches skillfully reproduced, and now they are cheap process copies of harsh photographs.

One of the more promising of the many minor English monthly magazines is *Time*, now edited by a lady, Miss E. M. Abdy-Williams, who is credited with the desire of making *Time* "a shilling *Nineteenth Century*." To the July number Mr. G. P. O'Connor, M.P., and Mr. H. D. Traill both contribute prognostications as to the immediate future of English politics. There are other papers by Professor Lewis Campbell, by Mr. John Addington Symonds, and by Mr. John Dennis. We notice also an essay on "The American Stage" by "Frederic Daly" alias Mr. Louis F. Austin, the private secretary of Mr. Henry Irving, during his recent American travels. It is much what might have been expected.

We noticed M. Paul Bourget's 'Cruelle Énigme' not long ago. It is now in its tenth edition. It may interest some of its readers to know that in conversation recently M. Taine pronounced it the strongest French novel of the past ten years.

In the number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*

for June 15th there is an excellent essay by M. Gustave Larroumet on "La Femme de Molière." Its conclusions are on the whole favorable to Armande; and the sanity of its criticism is most welcome.

—Lippincott's, with all its seeming humbleness in comparison with its more favored rivals, maintains a remarkable excellence. If it seldom wears the advertisement of any popular name in its list of authors, it has many a good article; in each issue there may be more than one. The August number has, for instance, a very intelligent and clear account of the Scottish Crofters, their troubles, and the remedies in behalf of which the present agitation is being carried on; and it is interesting to note how in this case, as in the Irish land-law reform, socialistic legislation—by which we mean an increasing and defined state-protection of the poor and weak against their economical masters—differs in England and in other countries. The Irish land-law was suggested, and its development directed, by the Ulster tenant-right; and if the Scotch law is much narrower and less disturbing, it is because the body of past usage and custom which it takes up and recognizes and protects, is itself less developed than was the case in Ireland. The English have a starting-point for their new measures in old use and wont. But Bismarck's laws seem wholly novel and experimental, the adoption of an idea instead of the evolution of a practice, and thus socialism is truly revolutionary under the absolutism of the Empire; whereas in the new democracy of England the movement which is parallel to Continental socialism is evolutionary only. The second article worth notice in this issue is that on the pioneer history of the Carolina border—an attractive study of a region of our past of which it would be well for us to know more. The colonial or coast history of our origins is, perhaps, well enough learned by the public; but of the companion movement, our pioneer or border history, how very little is to be found in school books or in the minds of intelligent men! Cooper's novels have done something for the North, but of the settlement and custom-growth of the southwestern States next to nothing is really familiar. If the series of books called "American Commonwealths" should contain thoroughly informed and digested opening chapters when dealing with that portion of the country, a great service would be done. Meanwhile, we are thankful for such brief excerpts from our time of wandering in the wilderness as this little article. A third article is the good story of the number—in this magazine the stories are always far better than the series. This one—"My Friend, George Randall"—has in plot only a common and worn motive; but in telling it the author has, perhaps unconsciously, given a character rather than a story effect, and has impressed on us the peculiar and diverse utilities of friendliness in his friend, George Randall. He has done this, too, with a style so sweet and strong and kindly—he has written with such un borrowed charm—that the faults of diction, of colloquial phrase, and rude jointing of clause, into which he falls, have a disfiguring power far greater and more annoying than should attach to them in their own right. This style and temper in the story, so unusual in the minor literature that grows up beneath the vulgarizing influences of *Roe* or the realistic type of Howells and James, has drawn our special attention.

—The seventh volume of Collections of the Rhode Island Historical Society is readable, and rich in documents of permanent interest. Stephen Hopkins, Governor of the State and tremulous signer of the Declaration of Independence, began in 1762 to publish a history of the colony in the *Providence Gazette*. The work was inter-

rupted by the war, and was never finished, and Governor Hopkins made over his materials to Senator Theodore Foster, who in turn failed to produce a complete and elaborated narrative. Hopkins's portion has already been reprinted in the Collections of the Mass. Historical Society, but it is copied once more in the volume before us, in order that Foster's continuation may be placed beside it. Mr. W. E. Foster, of the Public Library, has edited and annotated both authors, and has also furnished a sketch of Mr. Foster's life, in which the point of greatest interest is perhaps genealogical. He was a descendant in the sixth generation of Reginald Foster, of Ipswich, Mass., from whom were also descended Rufus Choate and George Peabody. On the side of his mother, who was a Dwight, he was a kinsman of the Rev. William Hubbard, of Ipswich, author of a standard history of New England in the seventeenth century. A long and important paper on the Narragansetts, by Henry C. Dorr, involves much of the earliest history of the State, and depicts Roger Williams laboring faithfully but hopelessly with the tribe to civilize and Christianize it. Neither he nor any other, says Mr. Dorr, "has recorded the fact that a single Rhode Island Indian was a convert to Christianity." Williams reproached the followers of George Fox with "telling the Indians that the Quakers only know God, and therefore would sell them Powder and Liquors cheaper, and they would not mix water with Rhum as others did." As regards land transfers between the Indians and the whites, Mr. Dorr asserts that the former "seem to have intended to convey only a present and usufructory right—a mere *user*, or a right of common, and not a permanent, exclusive, and individual title and estate." Such of them as were made slaves were appraised at one-fifth or one-sixth the price of negroes. The existing remnant of the tribe is a mixture of these two races, the negro element steadily gaining upon the other. We can only enumerate the other papers in this volume: "Early Votaries of Science in Rhode Island," by Dr. Charles W. Parsons; "The First Commencement of Rhode Island College," with the disputation as to the policy of independence, by Reuben A. Guild; the "British Fleet in Rhode Island" and "Nicholas Easton vs. the Town of Newport," by Geo. C. Mason.

—A. J. Johnson & Co. have just published their new cyclopedia entitled 'Johnson's New General Cyclopædia and Copper-Plate Hand-Atlas of the World.' It consists of two large octavo volumes printed with small type and in double columns. It is not merely an abridgment of 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia,' published in four volumes in 1878, though many of the articles are condensed from it. A work of this kind cannot be printed entirely free from mistakes, but a short examination in certain directions shows an unexpected amount of error. James Mill is stated to have gone to London from Scotland in 1800, and the date of his death is given as 3d June, 1836; he went to London in 1802, and died 23d June, 1836. Frederick D. Maurice is said to have died at Cambridge, and the year of his birth is given as 1806; he died at the house of his nieces, the Misses Sterling, Bolton Row, London, and was born 29th August, 1805. It is stated that Carlyle translated 'Faust,' and that he was elected Lord Rector of Edinburgh University in 1866; 'Wilhelm Meister' should be inserted instead of 'Faust,' and his election to the Rectorship took place 11th November, 1865. The date of Lord Lytton's birth is given as May, 1805; he was born 25th May, 1803. Emory Upton was born 27th August, 1839, and not, as stated, in 1840. The date of Charles Kingsley's death is given as 24th January, 1875; he died 23d January. In the notice of Charles Reade no men-

tion is made of his death. It is stated that George Eliot "was the daughter of a poor curate, but was adopted by a wealthy clergyman, who gave her a careful education." Such a statement is unpardonable since the publication of Mr. Cross's 'Life of George Eliot.' Her birth is put as about 1830, when the exact date, 23d November, 1819, could easily have been given. Sir John Bowring died 23d November, 1872, and not, as given, on 23d November. George M. Robeson was not elected to the Forty-eighth Congress. In the article on Shelley the name of his friend Trelawny is printed "Trelawney." The date of John Leech's death is given as 30th October, 1864; the true date is 29th October. Robert J. Ingersoll should be Robert G. Ingersoll. The population of Paisley, Scotland, is given as 50,123; in 1881 the population was 55,642. The University of Glasgow is said to stand close by the Cathedral; since 1870 the University has been situated in one of the western suburbs of the city, three miles from the Cathedral. In the notice of François Mignet, the French historian, no mention is made of his death, which took place 24th March, 1884.

—For the fifth time M. Albert Bataille has issued his yearly abstract of the most interesting French trials, 'Causes criminelles et mondaines en 1884.' The French are rich in the literature of crime. There is no lack of reports of current trials in our own country, but at least we do not yet gather the most piquant together and preserve them in an annual. Dispersed through the year, single trials make less impression. France, too, has a whole library of fiction devoted to the history of crime, both the detective school and the naturalist school doing their best to lower the reputation of their country. Perhaps the number of cases here related is too small to justify any inference with regard to the character of French crime. We have analyzed them, however, and find that except three political trials, a libel case, one in which a foolish desire for notoriety and six in which revenge was the moving cause, all the fifty crimes had for motive either the sexual passion or the desire for money, or both. In two-thirds of the cases a woman was so evidently concerned that there was no need to obey Talleyrand's famous maxim and search for her. The troubles were caused in part by love pure and simple, in part by love complicated with marriage. There were fourteen cases of adultery. The Frenchman, as he appears in these trials, is rarely contented with one wife or one mistress, and the Frenchwoman, in one case, showed a curious inclination not merely to leave her first love for a second, but to leave her second for the first, repeating the change several times. A fault of M. Bataille's book is that there often seems to be slight connection between the evidence quoted and the verdict. Perhaps, however, this is the fault of the juries. M. A. Bataille, who is an advocate, blames them repeatedly for their absurd acquittals, and President Grévy for his weak commutations. Of eleven capital sentences, six were commuted to hard labor for life. It may be doubted whether this habit of President Grévy can be called merciful. Regarded as a punishment, perpetual imprisonment with hard labor is worse than death, and commutation is no mercy to the criminal. Regarded as a deterrent, imprisonment, however long it is to be, has fewer terrors than the guillotine, and so commutation is not merciful to society.

—The two most interesting trials related by M. Bataille were the assassination by Campi, who so obstinately and successfully concealed his real name as to merit a place beside the Man of the Iron Mask, and the affair of the Abbé Galien. This latter was a great scandal for the Church,

It appears that popular city parishes which have more masses offered to them than the priests can say, hire less fortunate rural curates to relieve them of the work, of course at a discount. To facilitate matters, commission-houses, so to speak, are established which take the masses in large lots from the Parisian churches, and distribute them through the country. The poor curé to whom the mass at last comes burdened with two commissions has to work very cheap. In the case that was tried, there were three middlemen. M. —, for instance, orders 500 masses for the soul of a relative, to be said at the Madeleine, paying two francs apiece. These would be assumed at one and a half francs by the Abbé Galien, who had founded at Pacy a workshop of girls for the manufacture of sacerdotal vestments. When his friend, the Abbé Aviat, ordered a supply of these garments, he would pay for them by taking masses to say at one franc each. The vestments he found a market for among the priests of his neighborhood, who paid for them by saying the masses, this time reckoned at half a franc. Thus M. — got his masses, though not where he supposed he did, the two Abbés made their little profit, by which in time one of them became a millionaire, and the curés got their vestments without paying out any money. One cannot help thinking that it would have been much simpler and quite as efficacious for the soul of M. —'s relative if the priests at the Madeleine had kept the two francs and no one had said the masses.

—Among the many projects presented to the Committee intrusted with the organization of the Paris Exposition of 1889, that of M. Colibert is assuredly one of the most attractive. M. Colibert was a pupil of Viollet-Le-Duc, and his collaborator in the restoration of several historical monuments. The principal feature of his project, as described in the *Temps*, July 9, is the reconstruction of the Rue Saint-Antoine and the Bastille, such as they were in 1789. The Committee has already chosen as the site of the Exposition the Champ-de-Mars, to which it has added the Palais d'Industrie, together with the Pont des Invalides and the Quai d'Orsay. M. Colibert's plan would be that on crossing the bridge the visitor should find himself abruptly transported into the eighteenth century. On his right would be the Hôtel de Mayenne, with the two separate pavilions that adorned it in 1789, and the little church of Sainte-Marie; on his left, the high houses with pointed gables, the tower at the corner and the pepper-box turrets, such as are shown in the engravings of the time, while the view would be closed by the impressive mass of the Bastille, its walls pierced with loopholes, its eight heavy towers, its battlements, its sentry-turrets on the platforms, and the four cannons that were fired on the people on the 14th of July. The shops of the various tradesmen of the period will be reproduced, with the workmen plying their trade according to the usages of the time: here a hatter, there a locksmith, further on a printer distributing facsimiles of old newspapers printed on the now almost legendary hand-press. At night the street will be lighted, a little more brilliantly, it is to be hoped, than the Rue Saint-Antoine was in the eighteenth century, and the wretched resin tapers employed by the poorer classes will present a most striking contrast with the electric lights used in the other parts of the Exposition. The interior of the Bastille and its vast court will be occupied by a retrospective museum of the Revolution. The Church of Sainte-Marie, which in the last years of the eighteenth century was used for a concert hall, will be devoted to the same purpose, the music of Méhul, Grétry, and other composers of the time being performed there. The rows of houses,

twenty-five on each side, will not present the monotonous straight line of a modern street, as the façade of each will stand out entirely independent of its neighbor. The only drawback to the certainly original and picturesque project of M. Colibert is that it would cost two millions of francs to carry it into execution.

—We learn that the city authorities have placed the following inscription on the house, No. 50 Lung' Arno Nuovo, occupied by the late Professor Hillebrand:

CARLO HILLEBRAND
negli idiomi di Germania Francia Inghilterra
lodato scrittore
bene merito del popolo Italiano
illustrandone con sagaci studi
le antiche lettere
e accrescendogli favore
nei nuovi tempi
tra le altre nazioni
—
qui dove
Fiorentino per affetto
visse quattordici anni
e morì il 18 d'ottobre del 1884
il comune
Q. M. P.

—Carlos von Gager, presumably a relative of Heinrich von Gager, "der edle Gager" of the Frankfort and Erfurt Parliaments of 1848-50—relates, in the June number of the *Deutsche Rundschau für Geographie und Statistik* (Vienna), a correspondence which recently took place between the late President of the Republic of Honduras, Don Marcos O. Soto, and the Guatemalan historian Don José Milla, concerning the question whether Columbus ever set foot on the shores of the American continent. Shortly before the expiration of his Presidential term (1877-83), Soto had the intention of forming a new district on the coastland of Trujillo, and naming it Colon, in commemoration of the fact recorded in Milla's 'History of Central America,' that on the 14th of August, 1502, the little squadron of the discoverer of America, then on his fourth and last voyage, touched the mainland at a spot named Caxinas, where the present seaport of Trujillo was subsequently founded, and "the admiral, landing with a few of his companions, attended at a mass, the first celebrated on Central American soil." This statement he found confirmed by a remark in Squier's 'Notes on Central America.' But when he turned to the original reports on the voyage, his confidence was shaken. Columbus himself made no allusion to the landing. Diego de Porras (1504) mentioned the naming of Caxinas by Columbus, but not his going on shore: the admiral was at the time sick abed. Antonio de Herrera, in his history of the Spanish discoveries, says: "On the 14th of August the adelantado [Christopher's brother Bartholomew, the second in command] went ashore with a number of sailors, to hear mass." The same is repeated by Irving, while Roselly de Lorgues states that "the admiral, who was still tied to his couch, ordered the adelantado, the general staff, and the crew" to attend on shore at the service of Father Alexander, but that the elements prevented the taking possession of the land, which was effected three days later, at another spot, by order of Columbus. Don José Milla, having his attention called to these facts, made a new search in the documents of the time of the discovery, and acknowledged that he had confounded the adelantado with the admiral in the statements concerning the landing of August 14, but reiterated his belief that Columbus did tread the soil of Central America. This took place, he thinks, at the Mosquito Coast, then called Cariay, where Columbus (writing from Jamaica) reports having beheld a large tomb, poultry, deer, and lions. Herr von

Gager does not think the quotation from the report to be conclusive, as the admiral may have "beheld" the tomb and the animals from on board his ship—a point hardly to be settled by discussion at this date.

—We have taken frequent occasion to note the development of meteorology as derived from the work of high-level stations, and particularly that on Ben Nevis, which is very favorably situated for the investigation of one of the great problems of meteorology, viz., the vertical movements of the atmosphere. This institution, under the direction of the Scottish Meteorological Society, has already been in successful operation through two winters. The complete discussion of the observations for this period is in the hands of Mr. Buchan, who has already established many interesting points from the barometric and thermometric readings. The daily variation in the average velocity of the wind is found to be greater at night than in the day—exactly the reverse of what holds good at the sea-level. The observed differences between the direction of the wind on Ben Nevis and at low-level stations appear to give indication whether storm-centres will pass to the north or south of Ben Nevis—a point which, if definitely made out, will obviously be of immense value in forecasting the weather. The hygrometric observations indicate that, during ordinary weather, the atmosphere on the Ben shows a state of persistent saturation, usually accompanied by fog or mist; but occasionally an extraordinary and sudden drought sets in, the temperature rises, and the sky clears, not merely of fog, but often of every vestige of cloud, while at the same time the valleys and lower hills are often shrouded in mist. This is interpreted as showing that the dryness, coming from above, is not able to penetrate downward to the sea-level. The thorough investigation of these phenomena is one of the most important pieces of work connected with the Observatory, and may be expected to throw much light on the question of atmospheric circulation. The rainfall at Ben Nevis is greatly in excess of that indicated by the theories of rain-distribution.

PARKER'S NATURE OF THE FINE ARTS.

The Nature of the Fine Arts. By H. Parker, Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. Macmillan & Co. 1885.

MR. RUSKIN, in his introduction of a French critic to the English public, has said that the French language is better adapted to art criticism than the English; a saying which, like many suggestive dicta of the critic, gives incisively one side of a truth. The reason of this better adaptation is not, however, in any superiority in the language or deficiency in the English speech, but in the fact that the French have been long in the habit of thinking closely and writing logically on art. It follows from this that their terminology is more precise than ours. Until, therefore, we have a clearer understanding and a more definite nomenclature of the elements of art, our art literature must remain inferior to that of France, although the English intellect is, as we believe, capable of deeper insight into the roots and reasons of art than the French, simply because it has a stronger hold of the moralities with which some of the motives of art production are more intimately connected than the French writers have ever been willing to admit or perhaps understand.

'The Nature of the Fine Arts' is throughout, in spite of its great erudition and really profound thought, rendered fallacious as argument and unsatisfactory as treatise by the want of a distinct and unvarying term for its starting point. It is of no use to discuss the notions of the Greek philosophers or the Latin poets as to what Fine

Art was, when we do not know what view they had of Art in the aggregate; and Mr. Parker would have rendered a most material service to art studies if he had with the same scholarly research set himself to determine what Art is, for, strange as it may seem, we have no sound definition of that term, whose meaning affects all the theories and reasonings we may construct on it. The Greek conception of Art might be of the highest interest as matter of psychology or archaeology, but clearly no more authoritative as intellectual statement than the science of Aristotle, if even so much be allowed. The Greeks knew one form of Art alone; and although that form contains the suggestion of all that is most vital in all art, no definition of the complex were possible from the knowledge of the isolated form which it took in Greece. The parallels which Mr. Parker draws between the views of Plato and some of the moderns in regard to Art are interesting as intellectual history, but of no value as art study; for neither Plato nor the moderns he mentions had any known capacity to deal with Art as a phenomenon; nor have the opinions of any of the ancients a satisfactory relation to the question, as seen from the modern point of view.

Mr. Parker undertakes to establish that there is no scientific element in taste, therefore no theory, and therefore practically no teaching of Art. A single quotation will suffice to show on how flimsy a basis his demonstration rests, so far as it applies to technical instruction:

"A revolution in the system of teaching drawing which has recently taken place in this country, shows how rash it is to rely on such an assumption [that there are some principles from which the true practice may be deduced]. Less than twenty years ago a student of our Royal Academy would have hardly found words strong enough to express the contempt which he would have felt for a *crayon study* shaded with a *stump* (!); but at the present day a visitor to the British Museum may see students copying the antique statues, and shading them with paper stumps, ignorant, apparently, that they can be accused of an artistic crime. This change of method has been the result of an experience which some English artists have had of the superiority of the French method, and theory must always have remained, as it always had been, impotent to touch the question. . . . French artists, however, have always maintained that France produces better draughtsmen than England, and that their superiority can be traced to the employment of a true system of shading. Perhaps some Englishmen will be found to deny the excellence which Frenchmen claim for themselves; but no Frenchman, and indeed no foreign artist of any kind, will be found to defend the old English method of shading with the point of the crayon."

It is useless to follow the train of reasoning of an author who confounds the principles of drawing with the use of stump or crayon-point, or who imagines that the superiority of French draughtsmanship, —contested by no school whatever—is due to the former. Our author does not seem to know that the French artists are not even agreed on the use of the stump, and that the ablest use either indifferently; and in most cases where the stump is used, it is so simply because it is a more rapid method of getting over the ground, and giving the requisite delicacy of gradation, than using a crayon-point would be. It would be quite as relevant to say that American writers are inferior to French in style because the former use stylographic pens and the latter quills. And this is an argument put forth to show the futility of theoretical instruction in Art!

Again, Mr. Parker says: "It is time the tree [theoretical instruction] should have borne some fruit, or that its sterility should be explained. We should be told why Phidias or Titian, who owed nothing to theoretical instruction, have not been eclipsed, and how their styles were formed, if theories are a *sine qua non*. The art

teacher, in truth, bears testimony against himself." But who can assure him that either Phidias or Titian had no theories? All we know on the subject is that their art was the result of centuries of growth; but of the kind or extent of teaching involved, we know nothing. We see that in general each generation of artists surpassed the preceding, and that when the summit of excellence was reached there came a decline; but the causes of this decline are as completely unknown as those of the rise. These are questions the study of which is useless except as speculation, and the query might just as well have been "how their styles were formed" without theories. Instruction implies theory, rather than the total absence of it. The whole chapter on Theory and Practice is full of evidences that the author is utterly incompetent, from his mental organization or training, to judge technical questions in the arts of design. He has no distinct comprehension either of the artistic faculties or the technique of those arts, and he seems to base his discussion mainly on them. He writes of an "academical system" of drawing from the solid (i. e., casts) and the life, and an "anti-academical system," which begins by setting the pupil to copy drawings, etc., etc.; and Professor Ruskin, against whose system he seems to have a profound antipathy, is made the impersonation of anti-academicism. The conclusion is:

"There are, therefore, two questions. If the academical method can be justified, it must be shown that solid things are as models more instructive than things in two dimensions; and it must also be shown that of things in three dimensions the forms of the human body are preferable to all others. Both these questions can be examined without any intrusion of technicalities."

But it would seem the very A B C of drawing that these two systems, so called, are not systems at all, that no such distinction exists, and that copying prints, etc., is the first step in training the eye and hand simply because it is easier than drawing from the round; but this stage is generally supposed to have been got through before the academical instruction commences. Drawing from the life is the most difficult form of study, and the most useful and final. The whole chapter on Theory and Practice is marked by this kind of error, due to fallacious distinctions reasoned on as if they were rules of art. A very elementary technical knowledge of art learned by a sound system would have prevented the writing of a great portion of this book, and perhaps have enabled the author to get down to deeper veins of thought, where his erudition and extensive research into what has been written would have enabled him to discover some things of real value to the student of art, instead of writing a treatise antiquated before it is published.

The chapter on Taste contains even more fallacies than any other. Taste is denied any positive basis, and the science of the æsthetic is derided as the last invention of German fantasy. The arguments are, that as taste may be affected by habit or utility there is no such thing as abstract taste, and that—

"Likes or dislikes are called tastes and distastes because the preferences and aversions which are connected with food are stronger, more diverse, and more constantly experienced than others. As these preferences are inexplicable, taste is the name of an inexplicable preference. It is no answer to this to say that science has explained some and may perhaps ultimately explain all. Undoubtedly it may. But the meanings of words are fixed by the opinions of those who use them [by authors, that is, and not lexicographers], and 'taste,' with its equivalents in other languages, has been defined without any thought of physiological theories. The term *science of taste* is therefore a self-contradiction."

It would be difficult to find in the literature of æsthetics so illogical a statement as this, in which

scarcely an assertion is sound or an inference just. Likes are called tastes for no other reason than that in the formation of language the vocabulary of the physical categories is the first to be formed; when the mental categories follow, the development of mental study (not to use the disputed term *science*), the analogy between physical and mental "likes"—an analogy which lies at the basis of our dual constitution—led to the analogical use of a word already known. The fact that science has already explained some of these physical tastes, and probably, therefore, will explain all, points to the ultimate entire explanation of the analogical mental likes; so much our author admits. But he dissents from a positive conclusion thence by the absurd *non-sequitur* that, as the meaning of words is fixed by opinion, and "taste" has been defined without any thought of physiological theories, therefore the term "science of taste is a self-contradiction." Firstly, we have seen that the meaning of words is not fixed, but changes continually, and that those in question have come, from meaning physical likes and dislikes, to be applied to mental preferences. None of the primary words in any language have been formed or given their definition "on physiological theories," because language arose before any theory or science. As science expands its field, we require new uses for words, and these are at first found in analogical significations, but finally, for definiteness, in new words. But as science has explained some tastes, and may all, it is clear that the science of taste has already a foundation and a future, slight as the one, and remote as the other, may be. "But," continues the author, "class preferences of which there are no apparent explanations are called tastes," thereby assuming the question at issue, and importing into his definition terms which have no business there. The want of an explanation has nothing whatever to do with the definition of a taste, which is simply an habitual liking, explained or not explained. The continuance of the argument, while it is even more absurd, goes to show why the author persists in this perverse logic: "The true meaning of the assertion that there is a science of taste is, accordingly, that there ought to be no tastes (!); and as a whole series of inconvenient facts intrudes when this is said, it is not surprising that the world should have eagerly adopted the use of the word æsthetic, which it owes to Germany. No one knows what the term means, and it can be employed without too plain an implication that there are no tastes or ought to be no tastes." The author has a right to say that he himself does not know what "æsthetic" means, but further than this he has no right of assertion. He might, however, easily have learned that it is the word employed to designate those mental likings which have from the want of it been included with the likings whose *raison d'être* lies in the physical nature of man. Taste is too general for scientific use, and, as in all other sciences, a term—æsthetic—was borrowed to distinguish one class of impressions from another when the question of their nature came up for examination.

We have gone at some length into the examination of Mr. Parker's book, because his careful and thorough reading of the authorities on the subject he has treated entitle him to a thoughtful consideration; but it is clear that he has approached the question with a *parti pris* which has only enabled him to see the negative side of the subject. We may be thankful for his thorough exposure of the weaknesses in the arguments of his predecessors in the study, but we owe him no new light—his positive contribution is nil. He does, indeed, put forward Helmholtz as sufficient for all hypotheses, but Helmholtz's explanations of the nature of any form of the beau-

tiful are worth no more than Doctor Liebreich's of the color of Turner and Mulready—that it was due to defects in their vision. Professor Ruskin's second volume of 'Modern Painters' contains many and good arguments on the subject of beauty which Mr. Parker seems not to have known, and certainly has not refuted.

THE LATEST YEAR BOOKS.

Year Books of the Reign of King Edward the Third. Years XII and XIII. Edited and translated by Luke Owen Pike, M.A., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at law, author of 'A History of Crime in England.' London: Longman & Co. 1885.

FOR nearly thirty years the British Government has been carrying forward, under the direction of the Master of the Rolls, in a noble and worthy fashion, the publication of "The Chronicles and Memorials of Great Britain and Ireland during the Middle Ages." As a part of their project several manuscript volumes of the Year Books, the early law reports, have been published since 1863. Five volumes of the reign of Edward I., earlier than any before printed, were issued under the editorship of Mr. A. J. Horwood. Then, two years ago, appeared a volume containing the Year Books of 11 and 12 Edward III., prepared by Mr. Horwood, but published after his death by his successor, Mr. Luke Owen Pike. Mr. Pike's labors in that volume were limited to the preparation of the preface and the index. Now we have a volume wholly prepared and edited by him, the 12 and 13 Edward III. And an admirable piece of work it is.

It is well known that the old volumes of the Year Books began with the reign of Edward II. and covered a period of over two hundred years, down to near the end of the reign of Henry VIII. There were, however, many gaps, and among them the period between the tenth and seventeenth years of Edward III. It is the filling of these gaps which the editor now has in hand; and it is a satisfaction to know that materials exist for supplying them all. The old Year Books are a crabbed set of volumes, in abbreviated and often misprinted Norman French; some of them were printed in the fifteenth century, among the earliest books ever printed in England. But there were other sources of difficulty. The student who has floundered among their pages will find comfort in Mr. Pike's quotation from Serjeant Manning, who left a manuscript translation of parts of the unpublished Year Books of Edward III., now in the library of the Inner Temple. "Opposite one report," says Mr. Pike, . . . "Mr. Serjeant Manning, with a frankness not less admirable than his legal skill and his grasp of the ancient law, has written in pencil the following note: 'I cannot understand this case, partly, perhaps, because it is not clearly reported; but probably it is more owing to my not being acquainted with the nature of the subjects in contention.'" But in these fair volumes of the "Rolls Series," not only is the reader furnished with a translation opposite the clear and unabridged original text, but this text is itself presented only after it has been dealt with in the careful methods of modern scholarship. Each volume is accompanied by a valuable introduction and a full index. There is, we believe, reason to hope that the recommendation of the record commissioners of some years ago may one day be carried out, and a new edition and translation of the published Year Books be presented as part of the present series.

The style of Mr. Pike's editing is of the best. Those who have examined his 'History of Crime in England' will not be surprised at that. With grave faults in point of construction, that book

is one which deserves the praise given it in these columns in 1874 (*Nation*, No 473, p. 60): "It is a mine from which succeeding writers will draw abundantly and safely, for it has the impress of the conscientious student who takes nothing for granted, and who states no fact without solid proof." What distinguished that book was the circumstance which appeared upon its title-page: it was "written from the Public Records and other contemporary evidence." And it is this same search through the original records and collation of various early documents which distinguishes Mr. Pike's work upon the Year Books. As a result of these researches we already have contributions which will seriously affect the conclusions of scholars upon certain contested points in the early law.

In settling his text the editor has collated four manuscripts and has referred to whatever the old abridgments contain. In some cases he has preserved more than one version of a case. Best of all, however, is his comparison of these reports, in various instances, with the authentic "records" of the cases as preserved in that enormous and wonderful collection of judicial rolls in the Public Record Office in Fetter Lane. That is a labor requiring great skill and patience, and one not heretofore attempted in the editing of the Year Books; indeed, nothing but the enthusiasm of a true scholar would carry a man through it. In speaking of one of the cases where this was done, Mr. Pike says: "The search was thus attended with less difficulty than commonly attends searches of a like nature, though there was no escape from the labor of turning over and examining a roll which consists of 475 skins of parchment, about 33 inches long by 10 broad, closely written on both sides, and without any guide to the contents except the names of the counties occurring in the margin, and those not in alphabetical or other systematic arrangement." Few persons know what such an examination means; it must be remembered that the writing is not merely in a close and ancient hand, but it is in the abbreviated and technical Latin of the period, and it relates to matters whose obscurity in many cases is such as Serjeant Manning intimates in the passage above quoted. A hint of the sort of thing these rolls contain may be seen in the two volumes of the earliest of the judicial rolls (6 Rich. I.—I. John inclusive) published in 1835 and edited by Palgrave—the 'Rotuli Curie Regis.' Palgrave's volumes are very curious, for they present the text with all its contractions and quaintnesses of form. But the ordinary reader will find something more intelligible in Maitland's admirable edition of the 'Pleas of the Crown for the County of Gloucester' (Macmillan & Co., 1884), in which portions of two rolls of the year 1221 are presented in readable Latin, with an excellent introduction and notes. It was by the exploration of the treasures hidden away in these rolls that Sir Matthew Hale and Selden and Madox enriched their writings—to say nothing of Coke, whose ostentatious pedantry so hampered any profitable use of his learning by himself or others. The history of English law can never be thoroughly written until these rolls are explored. Enormous as the task would be, it may be hoped that the British Government will see its way some day to printing the whole mass of them—down, say, to the nineteenth century: "these are imperial arts." A great service was done in 1811, when a condensed selection of them, from the beginning (6 Rich. I.) down through Edward the Second's reign, was printed under the name of 'Placitorum Abbreviatio.' This abridgment was mainly prepared in Elizabeth's time by the Keeper of the Records of that period. Valuable as it is, however, it was truly said by Palgrave, in publishing the 'Rotuli Curie Regis,' that "it will be found

by comparing the text now given with the 'Abbreviatio Placitorum' that the latter presents only a very imperfect and mutilated view of the originals, the records contained in this volume [large octavo, 453 pp.] occupying but twelve pages of the folio."

We have space only to mention one or two of the subjects upon which Mr. Pike's introduction to the new volume throws light. One of these is the relative import of the terms *assisa* and *jurata*, and, in particular, the meaning of the phrase *assisa vertitur in juratam*. Mr. Pike seems to have placed this much-canvassed matter in its true light. By referring to the unpublished rolls, contemporaneous with Bracton, to see what, in point of fact, was done in his day in cases where Bracton says that *assisa vertitur in juratam*, and by a careful consideration and comparison of other authorities, he has brought plainly out the fact that not only was *assisa* an equivocal word, but *jurata* also. Each of them indicated a mode of procedure as well as a jury. For example, what happened in 1260 in the actual case of *Lodnes v. The Prior of Lewes*, cited by Mr. Pike from the rolls, was that in an assise of Darrein Presentment in the Common Pleas, the assise came; that the pleadings then went on, and ended in an issue which was out of the "point of assise," i. e., aside from the one upon which the twelve men had come to speak; that upon this issue the parties put themselves on "the country"; and that a judicial writ of *venire facias* issued summoning twelve other men to try this new issue. "Here, then," says Mr. Pike, "we have a case in which we know from the old writers that the *assisa* was turned into a *jurata*, and in which it is perfectly clear that the change effected was not a change in the functions of the jurors originally summoned, but a change which had the effect of sending them back to their homes and causing others to come, by a wholly different process, to decide a question newly put in issue."

As regards the application of these two phrases as an expression for the twelve men, Mr. Pike refers to the learned inquiries of writers like Biener and Brunner into "the history of the Norman modes of trial, in order to illustrate the origin of the English *assisa* as distinguished from the English *jurata*"; but he declares that "it may be clearly shown that in the earliest English records no distinction between the two terms was recognized, and that, whatever effect Norman influence may have had after the reign of Richard I., the words *assisa* and *jurata* were in that reign only different modes of expressing the same thing, and were interchanged at the pleasure of the officers of the King's court." Mr. Pike, of course, does not fail to recognize that the new issue was sometimes put directly to the assize-men, instead of summoning new jurors; they were themselves jurors—a *jurata*. There was an increasing tendency to do this, and, indeed, "it is most probable that in course of time, and as the system of trial by jury was developed, all questions of fact in proceedings by assize were put to the jurors summoned by virtue of the original writ of assize, except foreign issues."

His point is, that the import of the phrase under discussion is not fully grasped unless it be recognized that *jurata* is there used in the sense of a mode of trial—the mode which was practised under the writs of *Præcipe quod reddat*, where the jury, instead of coming by the summons of the original writ, were called in (if it turned out that a jury was needed) by judicial jury process, and where the jury, instead of certifying the facts absolutely—having had a view and having come *parati recognoscere*—certified *ex credulitate*, to the best of their belief, and so not subject to the attain. When the *assisa* was

turned into a *jurata* the procedure in dealing with the twelve men (sometimes a new jury and sometimes the old one) was the *jurata* procedure and not the *assisa* procedure.

Another matter upon which Mr. Pike presents and illustrates certain valuable new material, is that of early proceedings in Chancery. We cannot enlarge upon this; but we especially commend to the attention of scholars interested in this subject that part of the Introduction from p. xciii to p. cxi; and, in particular, the exposition at p. ci of a case of Scire Facias in this Year Book (p. 96), and a statement, at p. cviii, of a hitherto unpublished case from the County Placita, of the time of Henry V.—“remarkable as being one of the very first, perhaps absolutely the first, in which proceedings by Bill addressed to the Chancellor may be traced from the presentation of the Bill, through the subpoena, and through the pleadings, to the final decision.”

The Year Books have much in them to interest others besides legal scholars, especially as regards their language. They are “sources of philological information quite *sui generis*. They are not only a great storehouse of the French language as used in England, but (subject to the errors made by the various transcribers) they also exhibit the language as employed in every-day speech by the most highly educated Englishmen of the period. They are thus, in their diction alone, of inestimable value for two distinct purposes—for comparison with the French language of the Continent, on the one hand; for the illustration of English language and history, on the other.” Upon this point the present volume of the Year Books is not especially distinguished from others. But it is distinguished in other respects—by a certain scholarly neatness and accuracy in the translations; by the professional learning and the familiarity with the rolls which enables the editor to perceive and to point out the bearing of these old materials upon important questions; and by that thorough and altogether admirable style of editing to which we have already referred, and which makes it rank with such a book as Nichols's Britton. The editor has well heeded his own purpose: “The end which has been kept in view in editing and translating the reports in the present volume has been to render them accurate, by deriving as much aid as possible from every source of information connected with them.”

THE NARRATIVE OF THE CHALLENGER.

Reports on the Scientific Results of the Voyage of H. M. S. Challenger, during the Years 1873-76. Narrative. Vol. I. London: Printed for Her Majesty's Stationery Office. 1885. 4to, pp. 1110.

The Narrative of the cruise of the *Challenger*, sketched out by the late Sir Wyville Thomson soon after his return to England, has just been issued by other hands. Commander Tizard, Professor Moseley, Messrs. Buchanan and Murray, members of the expedition, have jointly undertaken to give as far as possible a general account of its scientific results. Mr. Murray, as editor, has had access to the official journals of several of the officers and other members of the *Challenger* Commission. The Narrative is partly illustrated by woodcuts from the drawings and sketches of Dr. J. J. Wild, who accompanied the expedition as artist and private secretary of Sir Wyville Thomson, the Director of the Civilian Scientific Staff.

Free use has been made of the charming volumes published by Sir Wyville Thomson, giving an account of the “Atlantic” voyage of the *Challenger*. In the same way a considerable part of Professor Moseley's contribution to the Narrative appears in the form of revised and modified extracts from his interesting “Notes by a Naturalist on the *Challenger*,” published in

1877. The introductory chapters are devoted to a résumé of our increasing knowledge of the physical and biological conditions of the ocean up to 1872. It was, of course, natural that in an account of the causes which led to the despatch of the *Challenger* on her momentous voyage, great prominence should be given to the work of British investigators, and considerable emphasis laid on the beginnings of the various enterprises rather than on their subsequent development.

The expeditions of the *Lightning* and *Porcupine* and of the *Shearwater*, in the years 1868-1871, for the pursuit of deep-sea investigations had such interesting results that the Royal Society of London recommended the British Government to fit out an expedition for the examination of the physical and biological conditions of the deep sea throughout the great ocean basins. These recommendations led to the equipment of the *Challenger*, a steam corvette of over 2,300 tons, and in December, 1872, she left Portsmouth, to return, after her matchless explorations, on the 24th of May, 1876. During that time the *Challenger* traversed nearly 69,000 nautical miles, and established 362 observing stations. An influential committee was appointed by the Royal Society of London to draw up instructions to the naval officers and the scientific civilian staff, and nothing which could further the success of the expedition was omitted. Physicists, chemists, biologists, and hydrographers considered most carefully the problems which the *Challenger* expedition might help to solve. And while the principal object of the expedition, the exploration of the oceanic basins, was always kept in view, the solution of many interesting secondary problems has been greatly advanced by the investigations of the *Challenger*.

The route of the *Challenger* is laid out on the Physical Chart of the World which accompanies the Narrative. For the sake of convenience subsidiary charts of limited areas are scattered throughout the volumes. We must confess to a certain degree of disappointment at the execution and details of the general chart. The contour lines given do not in any way represent our knowledge of the configuration of the bottom of the oceanic basins, nor does the chart give more than a very rough sketch of the topography of the oceanic floors, although the scale is large enough to have included many additional contour lines and something at least of the nature of the bottom.

A chapter is devoted to a minute description of the arrangement of the *Challenger's* decks, of the workrooms, and of the geological and chemical laboratories, fitted up for the special work of the expedition. This is followed by a full account of the methods of observation at sea, including the apparatus employed and the mode of sounding. The Hydra and Baillie sounding machines were both used by the *Challenger*—the Baillie machine after leaving Cape Verde Islands. But all the soundings of the *Challenger* were made with rope: neither the Thomson wire machine nor the Siemens electric thermometer was employed. The dredging of the *Challenger* was carried on by dredges of the usual shape, modified, however, by having the tangles of Captain Calver, which were dragged from a bar attached behind the bag. The ordinary beam trawl was used by the *Challenger* most effectively in very deep water. Finally, the pelagic animals were everywhere collected by means of the common tow net, and during the last part of the cruise they were frequently attached to the dredge lines, the dredges, and trawls.

The collection of information regarding the distribution of temperature in the waters of the ocean was of course one of the chief objects of the expedition. The instrument used to obtain the temperature of the bottom and of intermediate

layers was the Miller-Casella thermometer, a self-registering instrument, protected against great pressure, but not possessing the necessary degree of accuracy or delicacy. The Negretti and Zambra thermometer, modified by Mr. Ferguson, of the *Challenger*, promises to supersede the Miller-Casella in deep-sea work. Great care was taken on board the *Challenger* to collect specimens of water from different depths, and to observe their specific gravity and salinity. Mr. Buchanan made a large number of analyses during the voyage to ascertain the gases and the amount of air contained in the water. One of the most interesting chapters of the Narrative is the account by Mr. Buchanan of the result of his own and Professor Dittmar's work in regard to the composition of sea-water and its physical and chemical properties.

It would lead us too far to follow the route of the *Challenger* in detail; suffice it to say, that the Atlantic was crossed and recrossed from east to west and from north to south. The Azores, Cape Verde Islands, St. Thomas, Halifax, New York, the Bermudas, and St. Paul's Rocks, were visited in the North Atlantic. To the facile pen of Sir Wyville Thomson we owe an interesting account of the geology and botany of the Bermudas. The oceanic islands everywhere furnished an interesting field for the naturalist of the expedition, and no more captivating study could be found than the geology of St. Paul's Rocks, of Fernando Noronha, or of Ascension, or Juan Fernandez, as interpreted by Messrs. Murray and the Abbé Renard. Equally interesting to the biologist are the descriptions by Professor Moseley of the penguin rookeries of Inaccessible Island, of the botany of the Kerguelen Islands, and his chapter on the ethnology of the Admiralty Islands, or the discussions of Murray on coral reefs, on the surface fauna, the characteristics of oceanic basins and the nature of the deposits brought up from their floor. The experience of the *Challenger* in the Southern Ocean while forcing its way for a time into the Antarctic pack, and exposed not only to the fury of the gales of those regions, but to the risks of collision with Antarctic icebergs, was one not easy to be forgotten by the ship's company. It must have been a very great relief when the ship was turned toward the more hospitable shores of Australia.

Scattered though the volumes are short résumés written by the specialists who have prepared the different Reports on the scientific results of the expedition. They are accompanied by figures of the more interesting and striking animals of each group. Those who care for greater detail will find in the Reports thus far published a full account of each group. Eleven large quarto volumes containing no less than fifty-six separate memoirs have thus far appeared. They are all profusely illustrated, and have been prepared by the most eminent specialists in each department. Not less than forty additional memoirs are yet to be published before the scientific results can be fully discussed by Mr. Murray, the editor of the Reports, who has had the charge of this gigantic undertaking since the death of Sir Wyville Thomson in 1882.

The great value of the Reports of the *Challenger* lies in the fact that it is really the first great scientific expedition of which the materials have been given for elaboration to the best equipped specialists. As a natural consequence, each investigator has been able to draw from his materials deductions and far-reaching generalizations which it would have been impossible to obtain in a less special way. We may be allowed to mention here as examples of what can be done the Reports on corals by Moseley, on the Foraminifera by Brady, on the Crinoidea by P. H. Carpenter, and on Echinoidea by Agassiz.

During the passage on the 13th of December,

the expedition had the misfortune to lose Dr. Von Willemoes Suhm, a most promising young naturalist, a pupil of Von Siebold, who had joined the *Challenger* expedition at the invitation of Professor Thomson. His early death was felt as a great loss to the expedition by Sir Wyville Thomson, who followed him only a few years later, while in the midst of the discharge of the duties connected with the expedition, leaving a name which will always be connected with deep-sea explorations.

Military Manners and Customs. By James Anson Farrer, author of 'Primitive Manners and Customs,' etc. Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

THE object of this book is to prove the brutality and utter barbarity of war; to show by copious examples that the words "soldier, thief, and murderer" are nearly if not quite synonymous terms; to prove that mediæval chivalry is a myth, and modern military honor and humanity a delusion existing only in books and the finer imaginations of a few; to "show that there is no real progress in war," the wars of the present generation being in every way as brutal and debasing as those of Alexander and Caesar—in short, to make war upon the very idea of war, as it is understood to-day and as it was understood in past ages. "We clearly drive militarism to its last defences if we deprive it of every period and of almost every name on which it is wont to rely as entitling it to our admiration and esteem."

An indictment of this character is little less than an arraignment of the history of mankind, in which force in some form has always been the ultimate argument. This is certainly a large subject to be disposed of in a duodecimo, and it is therefore not a serious reflection upon the author to say that, considered as a well-digested argument against an existing system for which he proposes a proper remedy and substitute, his book is painfully inadequate. His indiscriminate abuse of everything connected with the military profession detracts from the confidence which would otherwise be reposed in his judgment by reason of his great erudition in military history; while his desire to destroy war by attacking it at every period of its history makes him blind to the logic of his own examples. He relates instance after instance of cruelty and suffering in the successive periods, and then states that they are all equally bad; yet an examination of his own citations shows at once that the greatest number and the most flagrant cases are from the wars of the Middle Ages; and this leads to the conclusion that the manner in which war is conducted is a mere reflex of the civilization of the period.

In its main purpose, therefore, of proving the absurdity of war, the book is not altogether successful; but as a scrapbook of curious and quaint bits of information concerning military matters, the origin of various military customs, the practice of different nations, ancient and modern, civilized and barbaric, the book is full of interest. For instance, it is interesting to know that in the fourteenth century several bishops contracted to furnish a stated number of men-at-arms for a fixed percentage of the Parliamentary grant; and there is a charming ferocity about the extracts from the 'Treatise on Tactics' by Emperor Leo VI., in which he recommends "cranes, to let fall on the enemy's decks caltrops, with iron spikes, to wound his feet; jars full of quicklime, to suffocate him; jars containing combustibles, to burn him; jars containing poisonous reptiles, to bite him; and Greek fire, with its noise like thunder, to frighten as well as burn him." We are also entertained by knowing that the Chevalier Bayard made a considerable fortune from ransoms, and again by reading Montluc's lament over the invention of the mus-

ket, which enabled cowards to kill brave men, while they "would not so much as dare look at the man whom they knock down from a distance with their accursed balls."

All this and much more of the same sort is as diverting as a chapter from Froissart, but it is far from being the main purpose of the book, which is to prove that war is a needless crime, the source of nearly every other evil, and "the main cause and sustenance of pauperism and disease." The author believes that war will cease as soon as people appreciate its absurdity and its criminal character. He arraigns the Church—and with great justice—because during "the miserable days of chivalry," when its power was at its height, it threw its great influence in favor of war rather than against it; and he argues that if a small part of the ingenuity that has been wasted in sophistical apologies for war had been expended in discountenancing it, and in contriving other expedients of a more rational character to take its place, it would long since have fallen into disuse. It is evident that the lines of a review afford no space for the argument of so fundamental a question.

Essays and Speeches of Jeremiah S. Black. With a Biographical Sketch. By Chauncey F. Black. D. Appleton & Co. 1885.

THE character of Judge Black is a striking example of the inconsistencies of human nature. If we were to reconstruct him from these speeches, we should say that he was a bigoted, violent, and even savage partisan, furious in his hatred of those who differed with him politically, and incapable of seeing any side of a matter but his own. Yet we know from other sources, as well as this biographical sketch, that he was sincerely religious, incorruptibly honest, generous to a fault, a genial companion, a sturdy patriot, and a devoted friend. Such characters relieve human nature of insipidity. They impart the variety that gives its spice to life. It is probably true that when one is the object of the animosity of a good hater, the excellences of that character are not very conspicuous; nevertheless it has its charm. There is nothing hypocritical about it; it is impulsive, genuine, hearty. A good hater Judge Black certainly was, but much can be forgiven to him, for he also loved much.

As we have intimated, there is little in this volume to show the genial side of the man. With the exception of some addresses before agricultural societies and the like, the great bulk of the matter is controversial. We cannot say that its literary merit is high—"that his diction was richer than Macaulay's and more brilliant than that of Junius," in the enthusiastic words of one of the author's eulogists. He is said to have committed Horace to memory before he was fifteen, and to have translated it into both prose and verse; but his schooling ceased when he was seventeen, and the demands of active life doubtless prevented him from devoting much attention to the perfection of his style. Hence his culture seems superficial; he stuffs his writings with hackneyed quotations and trite classical allusions. Those hard-worked celebrities, Cæsar, Herod, Nero, the Roman proconsuls, the Goths and Vandals, and a hundred others that figure in schoolboys' compositions, are kept unsparingly at labor in illustrating the events of modern political life. This kind of writing being easy, the reading of it is correspondingly hard, and even when the matter is in itself of high interest, the intolerable diffuseness of treatment renders it wearisome. The events that Judge Black beheld, and of which he was a part, were highly dramatic; but his fatal facility and facundity seem to have prevented him from leaving us a single vivid description.

It is in his forensic efforts that he appears to the best advantage, although even there his passionate nature chafes and struggles under the restraints of professional propriety. Yet when held within bounds this *sæva indignatio* elevates his style to passages of genuine eloquence, for the feeling of the man upon certain subjects was so intense as to burn the dross out of his diction. It is easy to believe that when he was thoroughly in earnest his oratory was of commanding power. Thus in the great Milligan case his soul was stirred to its very depths. That case, it will be remembered, involved the right of a military commission, sitting in a State in which war did not exist, and where the courts of the United States were in regular session, to seize and put to death citizens unconnected with the land or naval forces. Such a violation of the liberties of freemen roused both the lawyer and the man, and stimulated him to flights almost equal to those of Erskine. Nothing could be more characteristic, however, than this illustration of his conception of charity:

"The commissioners are not on trial; they are absent and undefended; and they are entitled to the benefit of that charity which presumes them to be wholly unacquainted with the first principles of natural justice, and quite unable to comprehend either the law or the facts of a criminal cause."

Like Andrew Jackson, whom he greatly admired and greatly resembled, Mr. Black was of Scotch-Irish descent. We know not whether the theology of this people inclined them to accept the tenets of the old Democratic party, but it is easy to see that Calvinistic doctrines would prepare them to hold firmly to apparently irreconcilable political theories. During the period before the civil war, a Democrat had to maintain at once that every subject was a freeman and that the negroes must remain slaves. The Constitution of the United States, which was politically what the Divine Decrees were in theology, ordained liberty to the whites and slavery to the blacks. The Constitution could not be changed; *Fiat lex, ruat justitia*, as old Justice Maule said. Slavery might be morally objectionable, but it could not be constitutionally disturbed, and that ought to be an end of the matter, according to Democratic feeling. Hence their bitter hatred of the abolitionists, for the abolitionists could not succeed without destroying the Constitution. Fortunately the secessionists made a beginning, *solvitur ambulando*, and the Democrats were free to fight the rebels and denounce the Black Republicans with consistency and vigor. We believe that Judge Black was sincerely loyal; but the disturbance of the Constitution was to him an intellectual, almost a religious, shock, and he was never quite coherent about it. It is pleasanter to follow him when, animated by a generous sympathy for the poor and helpless, he exposes the corruption of the Legislature of his own State, and denounces the oppressive monopolies that have governed it so long and so cruelly. With all his faults, he was an honest man, fearless in his devotion to what he believed to be the truth; and herein lies his chief claim to the honor of his countrymen.

Discourses in America. By Matthew Arnold. Macmillan & Co. 1885.

THE three lay-sermons which Mr. Arnold delivered in America were at the time the text of criticisms innumerable, though rather of the author than of his matter; and he would truly lack pity who should make the present publication of them in a book an excuse for stretching out longer the Rhadamanthus of Emerson on the tough rack of ordinary mortal opinion. Lay-sermons we call them because they deal so exclusively with universal truths. The first, that on Numbers, enun-

ciates a truth confessedly from "the sages and saints," Greek and Jew, and declares it applicable to every nation and every age indifferently; to wit, that wisdom and virtue belong to an aristocracy which is the heaven of the state, and if they fall, then, to speak after the vulgar, your bread is dough. In the second lecture, an academical polemic with Huxley, this same addiction to generalities—in the main, the assertion that education should by preference include knowledge operating intimately and directly on conduct—was so complete that audiences as a rule were as little interested in it as in a discussion of lunar optics. In the case of the last lecture, too—that on Emerson, which has been a puzzle to many and an offence to more—an explanation of its effect may be found in that same remoteness which in the others had caused their neglect. Emerson was treated as if he were already a classic, known only through his books, and the criticism applied to him rested on what may be called the universals of literature; but at Concord and Boston Bay Emerson is not a book, but a man—not a classic, an utterer of universal and time-dissociated truth, but the utterer of truth that had a special propriety to the hour's need, a particular applicability and force at a stage of New England thought. To his audience his words had often the magical power of releasing vague aspiration into the form of intellectual light; by others, who only apprehend his meaning as thought without at the same time experiencing it as a mode of seemingly miraculous power, the very same words may be very differently rated. The critic reads *Open Sesame* quite plainly, and says they are pretty syllables enough; but when they were spoken, what a treasure they revealed! That treasure Mr. Arnold could not see, just as Prince Posterity and his Regent, Time, will have no eyes for it. Mr. Arnold wrote of his subject like one born in the next century, and he suffers only the common fate of men who insist on being in advance of their age. He used in his analysis only the materials open in the case of all classics who are a voice and no more, and thus was obliged to restrict himself to the universals of literature, as has been said; whether his conclusions are sound, it would be premature to inquire while the Funeral Oration is still proceeding through the long hour that hushes every voice within audible reach of Concord.

One word more, one little question that we cannot forbear to ask. When one has reread these pages, is it the sense of irony that leads him to turn back to the preface, where the preacher, contemplating "the House of Lords a danger, and the House of Commons a scandal," and the middle class that exalts "the Rhetorician," Gladstone, and submits to him with "the formula of that submissive animal which carried the Prophet Balaam"—is it the sense of irony, we wonder, which leads one to reperuse the words in which this preacher finds his consolation, not in the maxims of Greece or the exhortations of Judea or the note-book of Marcus Aurelius even, but in the very mundane, particular, and true Briton fact that, though the leaders are rhetoricians and the masses unyoked to the will of "the Remnant," yet "the individual Englishman, whenever and wherever called on to do his duty, does it almost invariably with the old energy, courage, virtue"?

The Rise of Intellectual Liberty, from Thales to Copernicus. By Frederick May Holland. Henry Holt & Co. 1885.

This title is unfortunate, for it seems to imply that the history of free thought in ancient and in Christian times presents a continuous development. The story itself, however, is truly told, its parts judiciously proportioned, and the rela-

tions of the different events and phenomena ably brought out. Moreover, all that tediousness which is apt to belong to comprehensive sketches of history is entirely avoided; the book is decidedly one to sit up late over. The most original part of the work is the concluding chapter, in which the author undertakes, by an inductive examination of history, to settle such questions as whether rationalism is favorable to morality, whether Christianity tends to the development of women's minds, whether the world's best work is done by book-men, etc. Mr. Holland claims special credit for having kept his mind free from prejudice in this investigation. He even goes so far as to say, "I did not start with the intention of proving anything; and it was only when I was ready to write the last chapter, that I found myself justified in drawing the conclusions set forth." And again, "In this narrative . . . I have not had a single specific proposition before me, as desirable or possible to be proved. It was not until I had finished the previous chapters, that I inquired what I had found out. In the final revision, I saw that some general principles had been well enough established to be worth mentioning."

These sentences seem to betray a want of acquaintance with the true rules of scientific induction. The choice of the instances upon which an induction is to be based must not be influenced by any foregone opinion upon the question to be tested by those instances. Such influence may be guarded against in various ways: by selecting only instances concerning which it is not known which side of the question they will favor; by choosing them by the mechanical action of chance; or by taking all the instances known. But it is so far from being hurtful to have settled upon definite hypotheses which the instances are taken to put to the test, that, without so much prejudice as that, the induction is radically faulty. Pure historical induction, without any preconceptions, could never yield any general truths concerning human nature. How were the principles of physics established? The famous third dialogue of Galileo is not a purely inductive inquiry. It is guided, as all other physical investigations have been, by the conviction that the true law is a simple one: that is to say, one natural and easy for the human mind to conceive. In short, physical science has been attained by the development and correction of our natural instincts about forces, space, time, and matter. In like manner, anthropological science must proceed by the development and correction of our natural instincts about our fellow-beings. We know enough about human nature to answer all the questions in Mr. Holland's concluding chapter with a considerable degree of probability, quite independent of history. If we put our opinions so formed to the test of historical induction, we may have good hopes of making valuable additions to our knowledge. Though Mr. Holland does not seem to be aware of it, this is the course which he has himself pursued in great measure. His readers can see, if he cannot, his prepossession in favor of rationalists and of women, in reference to every possible advantage of head and heart. But his logical procedure would have been much stronger if he had himself fully understood what its nature really was.

A Companion to the Revised Old Testament. By Talbot W. Chambers. Funk & Wagnalls, 1885.

HAVING laid before our readers, in our notices of the Revised Old Testament, our own view and estimation of the work done or left undone by the Revisers, we should have to be guilty of not a little repetition were we to enter upon a critical

analysis of the volume before us. We can, however, unhesitatingly recommend Doctor Chambers's 'Companion' as a book containing a large amount of valuable information, pleasantly presented, on the origin, execution, and merits of the Revision, and on various other topics of Biblical interest more or less closely connected with the subject. Doctor Chambers writes with the warmth, earnestness, and knowledge of a co-laborer, and is, at the same time, free from all personal assumption. He writes for the public at large, and, though often explaining points of linguistic import, avoids the least display of Hebrew erudition. No word in Hebrew or Greek letters disturbs the even flow of his popular exposition. He is in unqualified sympathy with the Revision, and, for this reason, as well as through avoidance of learned details, occasionally wrongs the Authorized Version. Thus, for instance, when speaking of "Uniformity" (p. 47), he says: "In this respect the Authorized is sadly deficient. In many cases the same Hebrew word is variously rendered, when there is no reason, rhetorical or logical, for the variation. . . . For example, in Numb. xxxv. the same Hebrew word is translated in v. 11, the *slayer*; in v. 12, the *man-slayer*; and in v. 16, the *murderer*." No explanation accompanying this statement, the reader is led to infer that King James's translators sometimes put down their renderings with frivolous disregard of consistency. The renderings in question prove the very opposite. V. 11 speaks of "the slayer . . . which killeth any person"; as the Hebrew word translated *slayer* is not compounded with a word meaning *man*, it was certainly unnecessary to add this word, in English, before "person." V. 12 does not contain "person"; hence the rendering, in explicit form, "manslayer." These two verses speak of killing with unproved murderous intent; but this is not the case with v. 16, which means to say, The full guilt is proved; the killer "is a murderer: the murderer shall surely be put to death," as the Authorized has it. The Septuagint, too, uses three different renderings of the same Hebrew word, though with less consistency—*ὁ φονεύων*, *ὁ φονεύσας*, and *ὁ φονεύτης* (cf. vv. 11, 12, 16-19, 21). Whether the translators of 1611 had a right to improve upon the original text by altering its wording, which—as the Revised preserves it—says that not every manslayer is a manslayer, but certain manslayers are manslayers, and consequently punishable with death, into words meaning that not every slayer of a person, or manslayer, is a murderer, and that only a real murderer shall be put to death—is another question, upon which opinions may be fairly divided. King James's translators believed they were bound to express the obvious meaning of the original text; the Revisers deemed it their duty to restore it *literally* with its imperfections, derived from a limited vocabulary. The former had certainly excellent reasons, both rhetorical and logical—though perhaps not decisive—for their course. Doctor Chambers's specifications of the changes introduced by the Revisers are very numerous. They occupy four out of the ten chapters of his book. Five chapters treat of "The Need of a Revision," "The Method of a Revision," "The Text of the Old Testament," "The American Appendix," and "The Importance of the Old Testament"; and the last presents "The Names of the Revisers, British and American," with brief biographical notices.

Justice and Police. By F. W. Maitland. Macmillan & Co. 1885.

THIS fourth volume of the excellent "English Citizen" series is devoted to an account of the administration of justice in England. It is not within its scope to describe English law in gene-

ral, but merely to show how that law is practically applied. In the words of the author, "By the *Justice and Police* of a country are meant those institutions and processes whereby that country's law is enforced; whereby, for example, those who are wronged obtain their legal remedies, and those who commit crimes are brought to their legal punishments." It can hardly be said that this is a fascinating subject. It would have been easy to compile a descriptive manual of this kind that should have been so heavy as to be unreadable, and we were prepared, upon taking up the book, to brace our sinews for a shrewd tussle with arid statistics. We confess to a most agreeable disappointment. The style of the author is so clear, his mastery of the subject so perfect, his arrangement so systematic, and his sense of perspective so just, that we are led along as by a narrative, and find ourselves at the end of an agreeable entertainment possessed of an amount and kind of knowledge that is most satisfactory. The only drawback to our pleasure is the feeling that it is impossible that the matters here treated can be so simple as Mr. Maitland makes them seem. We are so used to regard English institutions as too complicated for explanation that we are suspicious of the actual production of order out of chaos. But we must admit that we have only *a priori* grounds for such hesitancy, and that we have failed to discover a single inaccuracy of statement in the whole treatise.

We can best give an idea of the contents of this book by quoting the titles of some of its chapters. After indicating the domain of English justice, and showing with admirable skill the distinction and lack of distinction between civil and criminal justice, the author proceeds to describe the County Courts, the High Court and Court of Appeal, the House of Lords and the Chancellor, the various orders of the Magistracy

and the Constabulary. There is a valuable chapter on Law and Equity, a brief account of civil execution and bankruptcy, and a series of chapters upon the arrest, examination, and prosecution of criminals, the criminal courts, and the procedure in criminal trials. These latter chapters seem to us to be the most masterly, and we should suppose from them that the author must be himself versed in criminal practice, although he is careful to acknowledge in the preface his indebtedness to Mr. Justice Stephen.

We do not hesitate to commend this book to American readers who wish to understand the system of justice under which they live. The information here given is not interesting to lawyers alone. It is knowledge that is essential not only to a proper understanding of a great deal of English history, but also to the full comprehension of our own institutions. There is, so far as we know, nothing like this book for the use of "the American citizen," but even if there were, this book would serve an excellent purpose as an introduction. As it is, we should say that whoever will read it will find many dark things in our administration of justice made clear to him, and in fact, without the knowledge here contained, many things in our system cannot be explained at all. We took over the English system almost bodily, and we have not yet eliminated certain features that arose solely from the peculiarities of English development, and that have no logical *raison d'être* in this country.

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